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The Outlook

MARCH 19, 1910

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
THEODORE ROOSEVELT
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THE PHILADELPHIA STRIKES

The traction strike in Philadelphia and the accompanying general strike go on. Just how far the general strike is extending is exceedingly difficult to say with any accuracy. The labor leaders claim continual accessions to the ranks of the strikers, while the traction officials and the city officials assert that not only are the figures very much exaggerated, but men are continually going back to work and few others are joining the strike. On Thursday of last week, however, a serious conflict took place between a great crowd of strike sympathizers and the police. The labor leaders called for a great demonstration at the National League Baseball Park. The city authorities declared that the meeting must not be held, and that it would be prevented, by force if necessary. Nevertheless a great crowd of perhaps ten thousand persons came to the park from all directions, and, when they were not admitted, started to follow the labor leaders, who were in an automobile, down Broad Street to City Hall. The police endeavored to disperse the crowd by turning portions of it into side streets and driving the people away from the main thoroughfare. Their efforts were finally successful, but not before much clubbing had been done, many heads had been broken, and several cars which tried to cross Broad Street had been wrecked. Apparently no serious casualties occurred. Later in the day C. O. Pratt, the leader of the striking traction men, issued a statement in which he said:

> The Stars and Stripes to-day were dragged in the dirt, insulted and spat upon by Clay's banditti, who pose as minions of the law. Anarchy, high-handed anarchy upon their part, everlastingly disgraced this historic city. Mounted officers rode madly onto the sidewalks, crushing helpless women and children, although there was not the slightest disorder of any nature, except by Clay's uniformed thugs. My own conveyance was ordered off Broad Street as we were driving slowly down that thoroughfare as quietly as though it were Sabbath Day in Quaker City. One hundred thousand orderly citizens, men and women, were held on side streets and not permitted even to walk in Broad Street. Shame! Shame upon such scenes as are being enacted in this city in the name of the law by men whose greed for gold and power had blinded them to every human instinct. Arouse ye men! Arouse ye slaves!

It is entirely within the rights of any man to protest against unnecessary clubbing and brutality on the part of the police; but it is also well within the function of municipal authorities to prohibit assemblages in public places, and to prevent crowds gathering unduly upon the public highway. No rhetoric, good or bad, should blind people to this fact. It is the business of the authorities to suppress violence wherever it raises its head; and to prevent its rise whenever, in their judgment, it threatens. In the belief of The Outlook, the representatives of union labor have put themselves hopelessly in the wrong by bringing about a general strike. Neither employer nor employee in an industry where capital and labor are working together under amicable arrangements has the right to terminate those arrangements because labor and capital in some other unrelated industry are in conflict. The general strike may have its place in a country like Russia, where revolution is the only recourse of an oppressed people, but its use by organized labor as a weapon against capital is indefensible. What the immediate outcome of the grievous situation in Philadelphia will be it is not safe to predict, but one ultimate outcome

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it ought to have. It ought to convince not only Philadelphia, but every other American community, that the public must adopt some means by which, in public service businesses at least, labor and capital shall be prevented from working injury to the whole community while they are settling their private quarrels.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS

Of the measures on the Administration programme, the first to pass the Senate is that for the establishment of postal savings banks. It received the unanimous vote of the Republican Senators, augmented by the vote of Senator Chamberlain, of Oregon. The discussion over this bill has been very free, and has resulted in some modification of the original draft. In this discussion the chief difference of opinion has arisen over the question as to what should be done with the deposits received by the Government through the postal banks. The plans for the distribution and use of those deposits may be roughly divided into three. According to one plan, the money received by the Government from the depositors would be used by the Government to purchase its own securities. The advantage of this plan, it has been pointed out, is that it insures the constitutionality of a postal savings bank system, for it justifies it under the power granted to the Federal Government to borrow money. The objection to this, however, has been very strong, on the ground that it would send this enormous amount accumulated from the small savings of scattered populations into the great financial centers, and would accentuate the difference that already exists between those centers and the rest of the country. The second plan would provide that the Government should deposit these accumulated savings in National banks in the neighborhood of the post-office where the savings were received. The advantage of this plan is that it would send money not to a few but to many centers, and that it would insure the safety of the funds because they would lie in banks subject to Federal inspection and control. The objection to this plan is similar to that raised against the first. There are many communities in or near which there is no National bank. Such communities would, it is argued, suffer from having the money of their people withdrawn from circulation in the neighborhood; and this would be especially true of just those communities in which postal savings banks are most needed. The third plan would provide that the deposits in these postal savings banks should be sent to any local bank, whether National, State, or commercial, so long as it was subject to public inspection and remained solvent. The advantage of this plan is that it would keep the money in the locality in which it had been saved, and would therefore bring to each community more directly the reward of its own thrift. The objection raised to this plan is that it does not insure the constitutionality of the system, and that it subjects the money collected by the postal savings banks to unjustifiable risk, because it puts it into depositories over which the Federal Government has no direct control. The bill as passed by the Senate makes a compromise between the third plan and the first. In accordance with this compromise, the money is to be deposited in local banks, but in any exigency involving, in the judgment of the President, the credit of the country, it may be withdrawn by the National board of trustees established by the act and invested in securities bearing interest at not less than 2¼ per cent.

THE SYSTEM TESTED

From arguments raised against a postal savings bank system, one might imagine that it was an unheard-of institution. It is called paternalistic and Socialistic, the proposal to establish it is termed reckless and ill-considered, and the prophecy is made that all sorts of financial evils would follow its adoption. The fact is, the postal savings bank idea has been in existence and under discussion for over a hundred years. Practically every argument now brought against it was raised during the agitation for postal savings banks in England during the first half of the last century. Postal savings banks have been in operation in England since 1862, and have been adopted in thirty-six countries and dependencies, including Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Belgium, Japan, Italy, the Netherlands, France, Austria, Sweden, Hungary, Fin-

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land, and Russia. Even in the United States, extraordinarily conservative as this country is, the plan to establish postal savings banks has been almost continuously under consideration for thirty-seven years. Since 1873, when the first bill to establish postal savings banks was introduced, eighty measures for the same purpose have been before Congress, thirty in the Senate and fifty in the House of Representatives. In 1906 the United States established and since then has successfully conducted a system of postal savings banks in the Philippine Islands. It is about time for even the conservative American people to be satisfied with the proof of experience, to stop discussion, and to demand the privilege that is exercised by the people of Tunis, Formosa, Egypt, and the Gold Coast.

USELESS PENSION AGENCIES AND CUSTOM-HOUSES

The Pension Bill reported to the House of Representatives provides no appropriation for seventeen out of eighteen pension agencies. There would thus remain but one pension office. The seventeen agencies cut off are at Augusta, Boston, Buffalo, Chicago, Columbus, Concord, Des Moines, Detroit, Indianapolis, Knoxville, Louisville, Milwaukee, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, San Francisco, and Topeka. The House of Representatives has once more creditably taken the initiative in abolishing the various pension agencies scattered about the country. The first efforts were made in the Fifty-ninth Congress, when the Pension Appropriation Bill which passed the House provided, as does the present bill, for one pension agency only. But when this bill reached the Senate, the eighteen agencies then existing were put back in the bill. This history was repeated during the Sixtieth Congress. Perhaps the only way in which a consolidation can be brought about is through a gradual discontinuance of the agencies. But this is not the view of very many Representatives. They declare that, with the policy of economy of this Administration already emphasized, the present is the best of all times to press forward this work of reform. Moreover, even if there were not the reason of economy, a very good reason is to do away with the patronage which the continuance of many offices affords to members of Congress. The real obstruction to reform lies not in the House but in the Senate. The repeated efforts by the House have been nullified by certain of those Senators who enjoy the privilege of naming pension agents. These same Senators are presumably similarly indisposed towards abolishing unnecessary custom-houses at ports which practically transact no business. To select a few cases out of many, six such ports are: Saco, Maine; St. Mary's, Georgia; York, Maine; Natchez, Mississippi; Alexandria, Virginia; and Annapolis, Maryland. At Saco the aggregate receipts for the past fiscal year amounted to the magnificent sum of $15. The expenses of collection were no less than $662; the result, a cost of over $41 to collect one dollar. At St. Mary's, with the same remarkable record of receipts, the expenses of collection were actually greater. Result, a cost of over $45 to collect one dollar. At York, Maine, the receipts were only half as much, yet so large were the expenses that it cost $50 to collect one dollar. At Natchez, with receipts of $11, it cost $52 to collect one dollar. More astounding still is the record at Alexandria, where the receipts were $10 and the cost of collection $122 for one dollar. One catches one's breath, however, in contemplating what Annapolis did. The receipts there last year were the lowest of any port in the United States. The receipts were $3.09, and the cost to collect was $309! These statistics are startling. They should jog Congress enough to compel it to abolish such useless offices. The present system, like that of the pension agencies, is unspeakably absurd, first, in its disregard of economy, and, second, in its perpetuation of the adage, "To the victor belong the spoils." The victors are certain Senators who are members of the party in power. They delight in paying salaries out of the public treasury to their favorites. Any effort to abolish the useless pension and customs offices is resisted by them. Their names should be marked when these reforms come to a vote.

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SENATOR HEYBURN THE OBJECTOR

To the plans of the previous Administration for the conservation of our natural resources Senator Heyburn, of Idaho, was a most implacable foe. He remains consistently the foe of the Conservation policy of the present Administration. Last week Senator Heyburn attacked two great fields in the broad domain of the development of our public and private lands, namely, forestry and drainage. As to the first, he had two complaints: first, that it costs too much, and, second, that it interferes with States' rights. He seemed surprised that the expenditures of the Forest Service had been increased by nearly two million dollars in three years. And why not? It is necessary to administer a greater area, to handle a larger volume of business, and to protect more adequately the property of the public. The National Forests themselves have been greatly increased in area, and now comprise nearly two hundred million acres. Though the cost per acre of National Forest administration is virtually the same as last year, the total cost of administration is naturally greater. Yet the increased appropriation which disturbs Mr. Heyburn is not proportionately equal to the increase of area. Last year's appropriations, only fourteen per cent greater, were applied to an area eighteen per cent greater. Contrast our expenditures of less than two cents an acre with the expenditures of from one dollar to two dollars an acre annually made for the German and Swiss forests! Not satisfied with these criticisms, Senator Heyburn also attacked a poor little appropriation of less than eighty thousand dollars for drainage investigations. Now, if there is any pressing agricultural need, it is this. The need is of course most striking in the East and South, but in the West, with which Mr. Heyburn should be familiar, the need has also become glaringly evident. Hundreds of thousands of acres there once produced abundant crops, but now are either lying idle or are producing but a part of what they should. Millions of dollars would have been saved in the West if its farmers had understood how to prevent the injurious results of seepage water and alkali, how to examine subsoil, and how to construct proper drains. The Government wants to show individuals how to drain their lands. It asks for an appropriation of thousands in order to earn millions. And Senator Heyburn objects!

THE THANKS OF CONGRESS

A committee of the House of Representatives has been considering very carefully what should be done with Mr. Peary for discovering the North Pole. It has evidently regarded its duty to be the invention of some new method by which to illustrate the ingratitude of republics. The proposal that Mr. Peary, who has been in the United States Navy for nearly thirty years, should be made a Rear-Admiral for his services has apparently been rejected for the reason that he did not gain his eminence by deliberately blowing up foreigners. If only his heroism had been displayed in some bloody contest, the situation would be very different. Instead of conferring upon him the rank and pay of a Rear-Admiral, the Congressional committee seriously discussed offering him the thanks of Congress. It has been gravely explained that Mr. Peary ought to be satisfied with this because the thanks of Congress have been offered to only two other men in the history of the country. This is a most original view and one worthy to be pondered. We do not remember to have heard before that gratitude was enhanced in value by its rarity. This proposition suggests the basis for a new system of ethics. It would involve such propositions as, Do not be honest too often, for fear of making honesty vulgar and common; Repress inclinations to be courteous, so that your courtesy may be valued when by some mischance it does find expression. Such a code of morals and manners would do away altogether with the old-fashioned and uncomfortable notion that grudging thanks are no thanks at all. Mr. Macon, of Arkansas, who has already acknowledged that he has been the mouthpiece of the enemies of another public man, has publicly expressed his doubt whether Mr. Peary ever reached the North Pole, and he loudly calls for the publication of Mr. Peary's proofs. Mr. Peary, being prevented by his contracts from publishing his records at present, cannot very

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well comply with this request, and therefore apparently must forego the privilege of receiving Mr. Macon's thanks. The fact that these proofs have been passed upon and approved by a body of experts seems to have no weight with Mr. Macon and his associates. We wonder what this sub-committee of Congress would do with these proofs if they saw them. We doubt whether they would find them any more intelligible than a tariff bill. Fortunately, the thanks of Congress are of minor importance compared to the thanks of the country and the thanks of the world, which Commander Peary has already received.

LEADERSHIP OR BOSS RULE?

For three years legislation in New York State has been wrought out in the conflict between two sets of forces, standing for divergent political ideals. The one ideal is represented by Governor Hughes, the other by the "Old Guard" of the Republican party, the petty bosses and their followers. The Democratic party is for the time negligible, for its representatives in the Legislature are in a decided minority, and, in addition, its leadership in the State is of a low order. Twice the Republican bosses have been compelled, much against their will, by the combined force of public opinion and advice from the National leader of the party, to name Mr. Hughes for Governor. During three terms of the Legislature, under compulsion of the Governor's personality, reinforced by the same public opinion, they have been compelled to enact certain pieces of enlightened and advanced legislation. The influence of the Hughes ideas and the strength of the Hughes supporters have steadily increased in spite of the desperate efforts of the petty leaders of the party machine. In the charges of accepting bribes brought against Senator Allds, who had been elected party leader in the Senate to succeed the late Senator Raines, the already well-discredited bosses face another crisis. Pending the determination of the truth or falsehood of those charges, Senator Allds has resigned the leadership, and the Republican Senators met last week to elect his successor. There were three candidates for the position—Senator Davis, Senator Cobb, and Senator Hinman. The first two represent the "Old Guard;" Senator Hinman, the Hughes forces. The Republican party in the State is demoralized and weakened by the lack of strong, efficient, and, above all, enlightened leadership. The nominal head of the party organization is an ineffective figurehead; the other leaders are local bosses mutually jealous and following in almost every case the doctrines of the old predatory régime. In this crisis a word of leadership has come from a new source. At the conference of the Republican Senators a telegram was read from Senator Elihu Root. In it he said, with engaging straightforwardness and candor:

> After most careful inquiry and consideration, I am clearly of the opinion that under existing circumstances the selection of Hinman is plainly indicated as the only course which will present the Republican party to the people of the State in the true light, will correctly exhibit the real relation of the party as a whole to the principles and policies for which Governor Hughes stands, and will rightly represent the wishes of the voters of the party. Any other action would, it seems to me, be most unfortunate and injurious. . . . I have consulted with a considerable number of experienced and disinterested members of our party in the State, and I find a uniform concurrence with the view which I have expressed.

Two days later Governor Hughes also issued a statement in which he said:

> This is a critical time for the Republican party in this State. The question is more important than one of personalities. The situation has developed beyond that. The people know the course of events during the last three years; they know what have been the aims and purposes of this Administration; and they know the antagonisms that have existed and still exist. The question now is, "What does the Republican party stand for in this State?" . . . I am glad that Senator Root, after careful reflection and inquiry, has sent his telegram giving his advice; and I entirely agree with him. His advice, disinterested, publicly given, and wholly in the interest of the party, should be heartily welcomed. The representatives of the party, if they desire, can show unmistakably that they purpose to be just and thoroughgoing, and to meet squarely the issues that are now before the people. If they do this, there is no need for anxiety as to the future.

These pronouncements by the two most prominent members in official life of the Republican party in the State have defined the issue with minute exactness. Is the

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Republican party in New York State to stand for the principles and policies of Governor Hughes, or for the principles and policies of a discredited group of petty political leaders who substitute for the public interest the sum of a group of special interests? A majority of the Republican Senators adopted the latter view, and, in spite of the advice of Senator Root and Governor Hughes, selected Senator Cobb as the party leader. It was a victory for reaction, a short-sighted repudiation of the disinterested leadership of the best men in the party. The outcome of this contest is important, we believe, not because of its effect upon the Republican party, but because the issue is one between the old political doctrines and the new political ideals, fought in one of the most important arenas in the country.

A CONFERENCE OF MAYORS

In no place are the problems of democracy more acutely presented than in the American city. Every indication, therefore, that the question of municipal government is being seriously considered by those engaged in administering it should be welcome. This gives importance to the Conference of Mayors of New Jersey cities held not long ago upon the invitation and under the chairmanship of Governor Fort. What principles should control in municipal finance? Should municipal departments be administered by boards, or by single officials? What about the short ballot, and the appointment of certain officials now elected? What should be done with the excise problem? Such questions as these were discussed. Although no definite answers were reached, the fact of the discussion was itself not insignificant. Out of this conference came light which was not deliberately produced by the speakers, but was, so to speak, the product of the clash of opinion and the friction of interests. It was shown, for instance, that the interests of the small cities were in many respects apparently altogether divergent from the interests of the larger cities. It was shown, too, that National party politics interferes with the clear vision of municipal executives. The discussions suggested, moreover, that many municipal executives fail to understand important problems because they do not see them clearly in the course of their executive work. Such facts as these, though not new, form a better basis for improvement when they are established in this concrete way. Though this is not the first gathering of Mayors, it is, so far as we know, the first conference held by Mayors of a State on invitation of the Governor, as the Conference of Governors was held on invitation of the President. It will be interesting to note whether other States will follow the example of New Jersey.

SEND YOUR LETTERS BY TELEGRAPH!

As was stated in The Outlook recently, the combination of telegraph and telephone interests effected some weeks ago might result in certain economies and advantages to the public. A signal advantage is evident in the inauguration last week by the Western Union and Postal Telegraph Companies of a new form of service to be known as "Night Letters." In brief, the plan is to give to the public the benefit of the large unemployed mileage of wire at night to quicken the transportation of correspondence. This will be accomplished by the sending of condensed communications by telegraph instead of by mail. Of course between points which can be reached over night by mail there would not be much of such business. But in correspon dence between distant points the extremely low rates to be charged would probably bring the public largely to avail itself of the opportunity. Messages are now taken at any hour of the day for transmission at the companies' convenience during the night, and for delivery at the opening of business hours the following morning. The statements in the daily press that night letters will be placed in the post-office for delivery are incorrect. The companies reserve the right to make mail delivery of such communications, but, as a matter of fact, the instructions to offices are to make delivery by messenger, on the assumption that this method, while more expensive than the mails, will be more satisfactory to patrons. For messages of fifty words or less the rates charged are the ordinary

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day rates for ten words, plus one-fifth of such ordinary day rates for each additional ten words in excess of fifty words. Those who use many foreign words or words from a telegraph code should note that only messages in plain English will be taken at such unprecedented rates. The rates themselves are practicable only because of the fact that the wires are, in comparison with the rush of the day service, practically idle at night. Another plan showing the advantage of the combination of telegraph and telephone interests is also announced, though the rates to be charged have not yet been entirely arranged. The plan is as follows: Subscribers who may wish to send telegrams after the closing of the local telegraph offices at night will be placed in communication with some near-by Western Union office open all night. At this office the messages will be accepted and forwarded without delay. Thus at any hour of the day or night telephone subscribers will be able to send and receive telegraph messages from their homes without regard to the conditions of the local service. In other words, telephone subscribers will always be in communication with other telephone subscribers in any part of the United States. These announcements by the Western Union have now been followed by announcements for similar service by the Postal Telegraph Company within the scope of its lines.

THE RUSSIAN PATRIOTS

The rejoicing over the acquittal of Mr. Tchaikovsky at St. Petersburg last week is offset by distress at the sentence of Madame Breshkovsky to exile. Friends of both had feared, from the refusal of the Russian authorities to make the trials open to the public, that both would be convicted, and it is generally believed that Mr. Tchaikovsky's escape was largely, if not entirely, due to the protests from abroad. The despatches even say that so sure were members of his family that he was to be convicted that they had mourning outfits ready to don as soon as the verdict was announced. Mr. Tchaikovsky spoke at length in his own defense, and there is a touch of pathos in the account of this man of seventy-four years sinking into his seat exhausted at the end of his plea and going to sleep with his head on his wife's shoulder. It is difficult to find out exactly what the specific charges were, but while it was freely admitted that Tchaikovsky had aided political liberation and had raised money for exiles and striking workingmen, he denied that he had taken part in plots of violence or armed revolution. It is said that the Government's witnesses failed to substantiate the more damaging statements made by them before the trial. Probably Mr. Tchaikovsky will at once leave Russia, and if he visits England and America he will have a warm welcome from many friends of high public standing who know his unselfishness, deep patriotism, and noble and lovable personal traits. From such friends also a movement may be expected to urge the Russian authorities to issue a free pardon to Catherine Breshkovsky. To return to the exile in Siberia which she endured thirty years ago would in all probability mean death; she is seventy-seven years old, and she has already suffered imprisonment for two years or more, only to be condemned after a few hours' trial in secret—in Russia "the law's delay" is before, not after, arraignment. She admitted, it is reported, the technical truth of some at least of the charges that she had aided the revolutionary movement. Russia has by the verdict against Madame Breshkovsky done all that the most severe anti-revolutionist could ask; her rulers would make a lasting impression of fairness upon foreign nations if they would see that clemency and generosity constitute the only humane course to take in the case of this simple, true-hearted, and devoted woman, who has loved her country as much as she has hated oppression.

NAVAL PROPOSALS IN CANADA

Two naval propositions are before the Canadian Parliament. One, put forward by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, leader of the Government, calls for the building of a Canadian fleet, to consist of five cruisers and six destroyers. The Premier's estimate of the cost of these ships, if built in England, is $11,000,000; if built in Canada, the cost will be at least thirty-three per cent more. The other proposition,

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advanced by Mr. R. L. Borden, leader of the Conservative Opposition, is that the Canadian Parliament place at the disposal of the Imperial authorities, without delay, a sum sufficient to purchase or construct two battle-ships or armored cruisers of the latest Dreadnought type, and that no permanent policy involving large future expenditures be entered upon until the same has been submitted to the Canadian people and received their approval. The cost of making the direct contribution called for by Mr. Borden would be anywhere from twenty-five to thirty million dollars. A still further proposal has been put forward, this by Mr. Monk, leader of the Conservative contingent from Quebec. Mr. Monk's proposal is that nothing whatever be done until the nation's opinion has been obtained by means of a plebiscite. Whatever of public opinion there is in Canada in favor of going into a navy venture of any kind seems to be fairly well divided between the propositions advanced by the two party leaders. The argument most frequently heard in conversation in favor of the Conservative policy is that it would place under the direct control of the British naval authorities ships capable of taking their place in the line of battle. There is also a feeling that one contribution might end the matter, whereas, if Canada builds her own navy, responsibility for a permanent and increasing expenditure will be laid upon the country. The Government's policy is being supported on the ground that the building of cruisers and destroyers will assist in the protection of Imperial trade routes and in the defense of Canadian ports; that the spending of the money voted will be controlled by the Canadian Parliament and the building of war-ships in Canada will promote the development of a general ship-building industry. The Monk proposition, that nothing at all be done until the people have had an opportunity of pronouncing upon the question, receives more general favor than is accorded the plan of either of the party leaders. There is a strong popular aversion in Canada to anything savoring of militarism, and nothing but a firm belief in the stern necessity of the case would evoke enthusiasm for a naval policy of any kind. Belief of that nature is not so general now as it was at the time when the German scare arose a year ago. Hence the desire for fuller consideration of the whole question and for allowing those who will have to meet the bill to have an opportunity of expressing their opinion by formal vote.

CANADIAN RAILWAYS

Official reports show that 24,104 miles of railway were in operation in Canada on June 30 last, an increase of 1,138 during the year. A very much greater increase in mileage will be recorded during the year ending with June next, as no less than 3,300 miles were reported under construction at the date of the last official report, and a number of new projects have been launched since then. The undertakings already in progress or about to be taken up fairly well cover the Dominion from east to west. Messrs. Mackenzie and Mann, who are gradually linking their various provincial lines into a third transcontinental system, will spend five millions on terminals and entrance in Montreal alone. One of the lines they have under way is to connect Montreal and Toronto, another is to unite the Toronto-Sudbury road with their Western lines at Port Arthur, and a third is the extension to the Pacific coast of the line now connecting Port Arthur with Edmonton. The Canadian Pacific, the pioneer transcontinental system, has still more extensive projects under way. This company has appropriated $30,000,000 for extensions and improvements in the western provinces alone. Six hundred and twenty-one miles of new line will be built by it, 346 in the one province of Saskatchewan, and mostly for the purpose of opening up new territory. The National Transcontinental, which is being built in part by the Government and in part by the Grand Trunk Pacific, is also being pushed rapidly forward. The Government's section from Moncton, New Brunswick, to Winnipeg will probably be finished next year, and the Grand Trunk Pacific's end, from Winnipeg to the coast, will be ready for opening about the same time. With the extension of railways in the West there is arising an agitation for a revolutionary change in existing routes. Farmers in Alberta are

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demanding that facilities be provided for shipping their wheat by way of Vancouver. It is expected that much of the Alberta wheat shipped westward will find its way to the markets of the Far East, while part will, on the completion of the Panama Canal, go via the Isthmus to Europe. Saskatchewan and Manitoba farmers are clamoring on their part for the construction of a line to Hudson Bay as a means of relieving them of the cost of carriage via Port Arthur and Montreal. If these two projects are carried out, a vast volume of Western trade which now goes to enrich Eastern Canada will be diverted in other directions. This may have the most far-reaching political as well as industrial consequences.

A HUNGARIAN FIGURE PAINTER

Exhibitions of the work of contemporary foreign artists have great interest not only for their own sake but for purposes of estimate and comparison of national tendencies. Last year three such exhibitions were held in New York with great success. Two of them were "one-man shows" of the pictures of Spanish artists, Sorolla and Zuloaga; the third was the loan exhibition of German art at the Metropolitan Museum. Hungary is the country to be represented now, in an exhibition of paintings by a single artist at the National Arts Club. The artist is Louis Mark, one of the leading painters in Hungary; and Baron Ladislaus Hengelmüller von Hengervár, Ambassador from Austria-Hungary, was instructed by his Government to give the painter's welcome to America an official character by his presence. The opening of the exhibition was colored with picturesque Old-World formality. The thirty-four paintings are hung in the long gallery of the club-house on Gramercy Park. Five hundred guests waited in the other rooms of the club-house, while the Ambassador, the artist, the President of the club, Mr. William T. Evans, and the governors of the club made a private inspection of the paintings. The restraining ribbons were then relaxed, and the throng passed in line before the official party, and scattered to study the pictures at their leisure. Mr. Mark is a native of Rettig, Hungary, where he was born forty years ago. He was a student under Holossy and Herterich in Munich, and later under Bouguereau and Fleury in Paris. His work is as little as possible reminiscent of the style of the latter two artists. He is exclusively a painter of portraits and figure studies. He scorns detail, rejoices in color, sometimes with startling effect, and carries boldness and vigor often to the point of crudity. Whatever the final judgment on his merits as a painter, his work has great interest, not only as that of an individual with pronounced characteristics, but as that of a prominent representative of Hungarian art.

LOUIS KLOPSCH, ALMONER

The nature of the philanthropic work of Dr. Louis Klopsch, who died in New York City on Sunday of last week, was well expressed in a letter from President Taft, who speaks "of the good that he has done, the charity that he has encouraged, and the gratitude that he is entitled to from the poor and oppressed." Dr. Klopsch systematized and organized contributions for stricken people on a large scale. Recognizing the generosity and even eagerness of Americans to help those in distress, he made of the "Christian Herald" a sort of clearing-house for this purpose. It is estimated that over three million dollars were thus distributed in what has been called international charity; while perhaps less known, although most excellent in purpose and original in methods, were the summer home for the tenement-house children of New York maintained through Dr. Klopsch near Nyack, New York, and the Bowery Mission which he founded. Among the special funds raised by Dr. Klopsch were that for the Russian famine of 1892; those for the famine victims in India in 1896 and 1900; one for the Cubans who were cut off from food supplies by the Spanish system of driving them from their farms; funds for the sufferers from the San Francisco and the Messina disasters, and several others of equal or almost equal importance. Especially noteworthy was the sending of a cargo of corn to India in 1896; at that time at least four hundred thousand dollars was raised for the purchase of supplies or sent in money.

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So certain was he of the response to an appeal in the "Christian Herald" that in more than one instance he instantly forwarded, on the receipt of news of disaster, many thousands of dollars to supply urgent needs. Dr. Klopsch's efforts were cordially recognized abroad, and he was received and officially thanked by the Czar of Russia and by several other monarchs. The Emperor of Japan, through a special personal envoy, decorated Dr. Klopsch with the Order of the Rising Sun in recognition of what had been done for famine relief in Japan. The funeral services at the Metropolitan Temple were most impressive in their testimony to the grateful affection in which Dr. Klopsch was held by those so widely separated as the President of the United States, who sent a beautiful wreath, and the hundreds of children from the East Side whose grief at the loss of their generous friend was touchingly manifest.

EXCHANGE PROFESSORSHIPS

Much interest has been aroused by the announcement that Dr. Hugo Münsterberg, Professor of Psychology at Harvard, will be next year's American exchange professor at Berlin. Professor Münsterberg is well known in the German capital. He visits it every summer. He is a native German and still a German subject, but is regarded in the Fatherland as being thoroughly capable of interpreting American thoughts and ideals. One of his books, "The Americans," enjoys a particularly wide vogue among the German people. Equal interest has been roused by the arrival of M. Émile Boutroux, the Hyde lecturer at Harvard this spring. M. Boutroux is one of the most eminent philosophers of our time. He has taught at the Universities of Montpellier and Nancy, and at the Sorbonne, where, in 1888, he succeeded Paul Janet in the chair of Modern Philosophy. As a philosopher Émile Boutroux is one of the foremost living champions of the freedom of the will as against determinism, of spiritualism as against materialism. His system is derived not so much from abstract reasoning as from an examination of every branch of human knowledge, and is built upon the idea that the laws of nature do not operate by any absolute necessity but afford scope for the free activity of rational beings. Boutroux is the intellectual father, so to speak, of M. Henri Bergson, whose fame as a philosopher is also in the ascendent. M. Bergson was one of M. Boutroux's pupils, and his system has the same point of departure as that master's. M. Boutroux is an ardent admirer of Professor William James, of Harvard, and has made him better known in France by writing an introduction to the French translation of "Varieties of Religious Experience," by the American philosopher, and also by a long chapter on Mr. James in the latest Boutroux book, namely, "Science et Religion." M. Boutroux is to lecture at Harvard under the auspices both of the Cercle Français and the University. The first course consists of four public lectures. The subjects are: "Pascal," "Comte," "L'essence de la religion," and "Le mouvement philosophique contemporain en France." M. Boutroux will also give eight lectures of interest to students of philosophy which will be open to members of the University only. Special interest attaches to M. Boutroux quite aside from the fact that he is perhaps "the most considerable philosophic influence in the university world," as he has been called. For he is also the President of the Fondation Thiers. The great creator of the third French Republic was both scholar and statesman. But his road to both was a hard road, particularly to his ideal of scholarship, as he was handicapped by slender financial resources. He made up his mind that, if he were ever rich enough, he would help other young men who, after attaining a certain point in their studies, were prevented, as he had been, from going on with them. He often confided to his wife his hope to found some sort of an institution for these young men, but he died without realizing his dream. Madame Thiers brought about its realization. The institute is appropriately known as the Fondation Thiers. It occupies a handsome building, standing in its own park, not far from the Bois de Boulogne. The pensioners are fifteen in number. The directors select them from among university students who have already attained prominence in their respective fields.

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The pensioners remain three years, five leaving and five entering each year. At present, for instance, there are in the institution two philosophers, two jurists, two mathematicians, two historians, two Germanists, one Hellenist, one cartographer, one geographer, one historian of music, and one historian of French literature. Of course the Fondation is consecrated to original research. Its tangible results consist, first, of a group of erudite works upon themes which otherwise might have been left unstudied, and, second—and chiefly—the production during the nearly two decades of its existence of a very considerable number of thoroughly equipped men of learning. Much of this success is due to the wise direction of M. Boutroux.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

In his inaugural address as President of Columbia University Dr. Butler declared that the watchword for the modern university should be "scholarship and service," and under his administration Columbia has made a marked advance in both directions. It is becoming more and more rooted in the life of the metropolis, and is more and more adequately interpreting and representing that life. Its numerous courses of lectures open to the public have widely extended its distinctively educational influence, and have enabled a great number of people to share in the opportunities which it offers its students. In the early autumn Columbia will take a long step toward a more complete realization of her functions in a group of neighboring cities. This new enterprise is an outgrowth of the summer sessions of the University, which began about ten years ago, and which last summer assembled two thousand students from all parts of the country. This liberal extension of university work will provide classes and laboratory work in the evening at the University and during the day in other parts of the city, and extend these educational facilities to Westchester County and northern New Jersey. Evening classes will be organized in which wage-earners and those who are engaged in the professions or trades may obtain the best instruction the University can offer. That instruction will include classes in languages, literature, history, economics, politics, the various scientific departments, architecture, music, sanitary science, manual training, the household arts, teaching, and law. This extension work will be directed by a large staff to be under the supervision of Professor James C. Egbert. The value of the opportunities offered by the University to wage-earners of all classes who are busy during the day can hardly be overestimated, since their direct result is to give men and women a chance to become expert workers in their various fields. The time is ripe for this generous extension of the usefulness of a University to which much has been given and from which much ought to be required, and Columbia is showing in many ways an interpretation of her opportunities and her functions which fully recognizes the civic relations of a great institution of learning and the community obligations of a University which has received generous gifts of time and money for more than a century.

UNIVERSITY CO-OPERATION

Lord Rosebery has lately urged the abandonment by the universities of the endeavor to supply all possible demands for knowledge, and that each institution should select some particular branch or group of related branches of knowledge, to eminence in which it can lay special claim by reason of its traditions, endowment, and organization, and offer in these branches the most thorough instruction. The New York "Sun" reports an interesting pamphlet by a well-known Oxford teacher, entitled "How to Save Greek," in which it is proposed that the university which stands foremost among the sixteen universities of the United Kingdom, by virtue of age and size, shall give up competition with other and younger institutions in many fields of research and concentrate its efforts on philosophical and literary courses in which it has long been an eminent source of instruction and inspiration. This view of the special mission of Oxford represents the feeling of a considerable number of Oxonians, though it does not express the opinion of Lord Curzon, the present Vice-Chancellor, who has been making a vigorous and praiseworthy endeavor to secure a large

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increase of the endowment of the University. Mr. Gilbert Murray, whose translations from the Greek reveal a rare quality of scholarship and literary feeling, writes to the London "Times" that he has changed his point of view, and is no longer willing to omit Greek from the studies preparatory to the B.A. degree, and says that the question now is whether the university is to be "a commercial institution engaged in keen rivalry with new and rising competitors," whether it is to "study the desires of its customers and to emulate the attractions of its rivals," or whether the universities of the country should be "great institutions of learning, working together in their different ways to supply the highest educational needs of the people." And he strongly argues in favor of the co-operation of the various universities instead of their competition. Whatever may be thought of the question of re-emphasizing the study of Greek, it is quite certain that there is a growing feeling in favor of co-operation of institutions of learning by the division of the educational field, so that the different universities and colleges may have a chance to throw their strength in one or more departments in order to reach real eminence in that department instead of all striving to do the same work with equal facility.

THE OLD FIRST CHURCH IN NEW YORK CITY

The clouds have lifted which have threatened the continuance of the historic First Presbyterian Church, Fifth Avenue and Twelfth Street, New York City. By the gift of nearly two hundred thousand dollars, Mrs. D. Willis James has raised the endowment fund of the church to three hundred thousand dollars. She has thus secured the permanence of a notable landmark of old New York. The pastor of the church, the Rev. Dr. Howard Duffield, has spent all the energies of his entire pastorate in a determined struggle to buttress this historic church against the disintegrating influences surging around it. Despite widespread public sympathy and substantial money contributions, he seemed leading a rather forlorn hope until the reception of Mrs. James's gift. Her generosity is peculiarly appropriate, since Dr. Duffield's first substantial encouragement came from the late D. Willis James. Not only will one of its choicest architectural treasures be preserved to the city, but Mrs. James has laid the entire Presbyterian communion under lasting obligation by securing against change its venerable Mother Church. Two hundred years ago, in a little house on Pearl Street, half a dozen persons organized the First Presbyterian Church. During its infancy it held its services in the City Hall. Its earliest building was on the north side of Wall Street, between Nassau Street and Broadway. During the Revolutionary War it was used as a riding school by the British troops. At the close of the Revolution the Old First was the first religious corporation organized under the first Legislature of the State. The church's seal bears the inscription, "The First Church in the State of New York." It was a prime factor in organizing Princeton University and Princeton Theological Seminary, and for long years was the dominating influence in their control. It held a like influence in the organization of the Presbyterian Boards, both of Foreign and Home Missions. Then came its offshoots—the Scotch Presbyterian Church, the Brick Church, the Rutgers Riverside Church, the Fifth Avenue Church, and the Spring Street Church. The Presbyterian Hospital was organized in the Old First's lecture-room, and the city block now occupied by the hospital buildings was the gift of an Old First trustee. The spirit of this church is as progressive and aggressive as its past has been inspiring. Its doors are opened not only on Sunday but on every day of the year; during the past twelve months over seven thousand persons availed themselves of this church hospitality between Sundays. As Dr. Duffield has said:

> Our single policy is to try to touch every side of life in the community around us, and to make the church a homelike center for all classes of the people. I believe that in those districts of the city where the conditions of life grow harder and the struggle for existence more bitter, there is the place where the most beautiful churches should be planted. The best that heart and brain can do should be freely bestowed there, the most inspiring sermons preached, the most beau-

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tiful music rendered, and the most abundant opportunities of brightening experience and developing character should there be afforded.

Mrs. James has rendered real service to the city's religious life by making it possible to hold a strategic point for the radiation of helpfulness throughout a dense neighborhood, fast increasing in numbers and needs.

MASSACHUSETTS COLLEGE

Last year's proposal for the incorporation of Massachusetts College, which was passed by the House of Representatives and then referred to the State Board of Education for investigation and report, because of a desire to prevent the cheapening of college degrees, is now law. With more safeguards thrown around degrees, the Board of Education reported unanimously in favor of the project. The bill passed the House and Senate unanimously, without a word of opposition or debate, so carefully was it drawn, and was signed by Governor Draper. The act incorporates seven men as the trustees of Massachusetts College. Prominent among them is Edmund D. Barbour, the wealthy retired business man of Boston who is the inspiration and foremost financial support of the College. Mr. Barbour's main idea is to provide for young men and women education of full college standard so near their homes that they can remain at home and get the benefit of this college. As the plan was developed, it is to have about thirty educational centers, and the list stands as follows, beginning in the southeast part of the State: Barnstable, Plymouth, New Bedford, Fall River, North Attleboro, Brockton, Quincy, Boston, Malden (or Somerville), Salem, Gloucester, Haverhill, Newburyport, Lawrence, Lowell, Newton (or Waltham), Dedham, Natick, Marlboro, Fitchburg, Athol, Barre, Milford, Southbridge (or Palmer), Springfield, Holyoke (or Northampton), Amherst, Greenfield, North Adams, and Pittsfield. Within eight-mile radii of these places are ninety per cent of the population of the State, and in most instances the fare will be only five cents. Facilities for education are expected to be granted by the cities and towns where the branches of the college are established, and the bill authorizes such grants to be made by the municipalities, the buildings to be used at hours when they are not needed for the public schools. It was the idea of Mr. Barbour that these public buildings stand idle many hours when they might be in profitable use, and that the cities and towns might easily be of large assistance in educating the young people. The estimated cost of tuition is $136 for the four years' course, or only $34 a year per student. The class for whose benefit the College is proposed is composed of young men and women who have come to a stop in their education because they have no means to study away from home, but who would be glad to carry their studies through a college course if they could have the opportunity at home. The principal reason why the bill failed last year was the lack of a safeguard to protect the value of the degrees of B.A. and M.A., which the College is authorized to confer. This is secured now by providing that a committee shall be selected from the college presidents, or their representatives, who, with the approval of the State Board of Education, shall give their sanction to the requirements for admission to the College, to the requirements for a degree, and to the granting of degrees. These college heads, or representatives, cannot be compelled to serve, and the Board depends upon their consent. In the opinion of the State Board of Education, the interest of these educators to preserve the full rank and dignity of the academic degrees will prevent any cheapening of them by granting them to inferior scholars. It is one of the conditions that the Act shall become operative when $500,000 shall have been subscribed by responsible givers. One question which has been discussed in connection with the plan is whether it will be practicable because of the drawback that the school buildings which are wanted must be used in the day by the regular schools, except during vacation. Again, the persons who are expected to attend the Massachusetts College are those who are presumably compelled to work during the day. Will these boys and girls, then, after a day's

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work, be in any fair condition to pursue their studies? Will not the experiment fail because the students will be unable, because of exhaustion, to accomplish a fair result in their work? In favor of the experiment are the record of the evening schools and the well-known fact that many young men attend law lectures evenings in Boston University and win their degrees honorably, although they are obliged to labor for self-support during the day.

THE PASSING OF AN ERA

On Monday of last week flags on the State Capitol at Albany, New York, were at half-mast. They nominally indicated the death of Thomas Collier Platt. They really marked the passing of an era.

Mr. Platt was of the type of politician that flourished during the three decades that followed the Civil War. The country had passed through an experience that temporarily drained it of the powers of moral emotion. In the South the strongest men were intent on repairing shattered fortunes; in the North the strongest men were directing the marvelous development of prosperity. All over the country the will of the people was engaged in material tasks. Idealism was by no means dead; it was very much alive; but it was the idealism surviving from the struggle through which the Nation had passed. These years were rich in opportunities for the self-seeking politician. In the South he appealed to the idealism of the people by the simple expedient of being loyal to the party that perpetuated the ideals of strict construction and States' rights. In the North he appealed to the idealism of the people by the simple expedient of being loyal to "the party that had saved the Union." With this concession to idealism, the politician was left free to play the game of politics. If he was to succeed, he had to have certain virtues. Loyalty to party, which was a prime requisite in a politician, necessitated the development of the tribal virtues. The successful politician in those days was as faithful to his friends as he was implacable with his enemies. He never forgot a slight and he never forgot a favor. He was obedient toward his masters, he was generous and kindly with his followers. As participant in a game, he had the virtues of the gamester—self-control in a crisis, faithfulness to promises, ability to accept defeat without a whine and victory without undue elation. He had to know how to keep silent. He made his political moves with the object, not of furthering a policy, but of winning a point. He desired victory partly for what victory would bring, but partly, too, for the love of victory itself.

During this period great fortunes were made. Private interests, as distinct from the community and the Nation, became powerful. These private interests learned that they could make progress more rapidly by obtaining special privilege, and that the politician had the power to grant such special privilege. The politician, on the other hand, learned that these special interests could be of service to him. Friendly relations and mutual favors between the politician and powerful private interests became most natural. The fact that these private interests frequently conflicted with the public interest afforded no obstacle, because the public was busy in the quest for prosperity. When, however, one private interest conflicted with another, difficulties arose. The skillful politician was one who could adjust the differences between such conflicting private interests and yet could retain their support of his party. If at any time a private interest failed to show sufficient appreciation of the party, the politician could not only play off against it some rival, but could even prepare to perform some inconvenient act of real public usefulness. It was not often necessary for him to go beyond the stage of preparation. The mutual advantage of friendly relations between the politician and the special interest was too obvious to need crude emphasis.

It is this period that explains Mr. Platt's career. He was three times Senator. Early an associate of Conkling, he became eventually the dominating influence in the Republican party of New York State Though soft-spoken and often seemingly pliable, he did not lack daring. He was willing to invite the defeat of his own party if by means of it he could secure some larger victory in the game he played. He

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did not stand before the people as the leader in any great policy. He did not need to. He was credited with devotion to the gold standard and with influence in securing the present excise system of New York; but in neither case did his activities put him in the place of real leadership. The highest praise he received was that which Conkling bestowed on him for his loyalty as a stalwart Republican. The methods he used in securing the alliance of special interests were sufficiently revealed during the insurance investigation in New York. And almost as he died they were again brought to light by the Allds investigation now in progress.

The awakening of public sentiment in behalf of the public interest put an end to his career, because it put an end to the era with which it was identified. This does not mean that the influence of private interests in public life has ceased to be effective. It does not mean that votes are no longer purchased by money or favor. It does not mean that men no longer play the political game for love of power. It does mean, however, that it is impossible under present conditions for a man whose opinions on great public policies are insignificant to hold for any considerable length of time as commanding a political position as Mr. Platt held for nearly a quarter of a century.

As long as public business calls for organized effort, there will be political leaders. As long as political opinions clash, men will enter into political struggle with the same love of the contest that the hunter has for the hunt and the player has for the game. But now that public opinion is no longer swayed solely by traditions, but is formed to a large degree in accordance with ideals for the present, the political leader, the political fighter, in order to succeed must be a man who leads and fights for the public interest. The old régime had in it the elements of decay from the start. Its weakness even in the early days of Mr. Platt's rise to power was made clear by the popular response which Mr. Cleveland's appeal to the ideals of individualism received; and its progressive degeneracy culminated under Mr. Odell in the lapse of even tribal virtues among the members of the political tribe. This régime virtually passed away before its end was generally recognized. The era of Platt was at an end in New York State with the advent of Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Hughes.

LENTEN THOUGHTS

A LIVING FAITH

For the man without a living faith there is no living God, no living Christ, no living Church. It is possible to live in a world in which these are the great realities and yet live as if they did not exist. Plunged in the activities of life, putting forth tremendous energy in dealing with physical forces and business processes, we may be deaf, dumb, and blind in the presence of truths which make life explicable and of that soul lodged in our mortal frames which is the evidence of our immortality. No evidence of the existence of God can reach the man who locks the doors of his nature and shuts God out of his life. We can so completely insulate ourselves that powerful currents of electricity streaming about us cannot touch us. They are in the very air we breathe, and yet for us they do not exist. There are hosts of men and women who bar God out of their lives and then declare that there is no God, precisely as a blind man might declare that there are no stars.

God exists for us only as we open our natures to him, and this throwing of the doors and windows wide to his incoming is the beginning of a living faith. For a faith which makes it possible for the love and power of God to stream into our lives as the sunlight streams into the open house is not intellectual assent to a creed; it is not acceptance of a philosophy of the Divine Being; a man may accept and profess and remain as far from God as the most pronounced unbeliever. It is possible to use God's name habitually and live as if he were not; to profess loyalty to him a thousand times and yet remain outside the world in which he reveals himself to those who love him. Not long ago a deeply interesting story described a devoted young clergyman of the Church of England who wore himself out in painfully conscientious devotions to hours and seasons and rites and duties,

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but to whom no light or power or joy came until he discovered, in the illuminating depths of a great sorrow, that he had been converted to the Church but never converted to religion. For most men these two are the inward and outward aspects of one great truth, the soul and body of one great experience; but it is possible to be ecclesiastically as orthodox as Paul before his vision of the Christ and religiously as blind and hard and far from God as the typical Pharisee.

God may be historic to the man who is intellectually convinced that long ago he spoke to men through the law and the Prophets; he can be a living God only to the man of living faith: a faith which is an hourly expectation, a perpetual consciousness of his presence, an unbroken communion with him, a sense of his love and care, of his guidance and power, day by day. We may cut ourselves off from our dearest friend and arrest his influence over us by ceasing to think of him; we may gather into our lives the beauty and sweetness of his life by keeping him in our thoughts. There is no greater mystery about living with God than about living with our absent friend. We may so hold God in our thoughts that he silently transforms our natures and we love more and more through increasing obedience—and this is a living faith; or we may shut him out of our thoughts until he becomes a faint tradition of a fading past.

THOMAS PAINE

We have received several letters from admirers of Thomas Paine protesting against our editorial estimate of him in The Outlook of February 12. We do not print any of these letters because they give only one *fact* not stated in that article, namely, that he was in prison when he wrote the first part of his "Age of Reason," and therefore had no copy of the Bible with him. This does not alter the fact that he wrote his attack without having any copy of the book which he attacked, a circumstance which argues either an extraordinary familiarity with the book or the audacity of ignorance. In our judgment, it indicates the second conclusion. That he wrote before the Reign of Terror does nothing to indicate that he was not intellectually and religiously a child of the French Revolution, for the Revolution did not begin with the Reign of Terror. In other respects these letters simply show that there are men whose estimate of Thomas Paine differs from ours, and that our readers know already. But it is our judgment that no modern scholar of Hebrew literature, of any school —orthodox, liberal, or radically rationalistic —regards Thomas Paine's "Age of Reason" as an important contribution to the understanding of the Bible, and our judgment is founded on a fairly intimate acquaintance with the writings of Thomas Paine and some acquaintance with the writings of modern scholars in the realm of Biblical literature.

Any admirer of Thomas Paine's "Age of Reason" who will lay aside his prejudices long enough to acquaint himself with what Ewald has written of the history of Israel, or Wines has written of the laws of Israel, or Matthew Arnold has written of the literature of Israel, or Professor Huxley has written of the ethics of Israel, or Renan has written of the political and spiritual development of Israel, or Theodore Parker has written of the spiritual life of Israel, as these are embodied in the Bible, may easily satisfy himself that for the political, social, ethical, and spiritual ideals of American democracy we are more indebted to the literature of the Hebrew people—that is, to the Bible—than to any other one source, if not more than to all other sources combined. All that Thomas Paine did was to discover in this literature some of those crudities of thought, emotion, and expression which are characteristic of a primitive age and a primitive people. As we said in the article which our correspondents criticise, "many of Thomas Paine's criticisms on the literalism of interpretation current in his time are just." But whatever incidental service he may have rendered to that epoch by showing that the Bible is not infallible and inerrant, no one need now go to his uncritical and unscholarly writings for demonstration of that fact. It is better shown by writers who are able to see something else in the flood of sunlight besides the spots on the sun.

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THE SPECTATOR

In the "Century Magazine" for July, 1893, was an article by the artist Joseph Pennell and Mrs. Pennell, entitled "The Most Picturesque Place in the World." There were many illustrations of tantalizing beauty and charm, but the brief text gave no indication of the country in which this marvelous and unique town was situated. "We had always been hunting for it," writes Mrs. Pennell. "We had always felt sure that somewhere, some day, we should find the perfect place which was to combine the charm of the Middle Ages with the comfort of the nineteenth century. Eight years of wandering had brought us no closer to our undiscovered country, when, last summer, as we were traveling in the mountains of—but no! why should we tell the name? Why break the serenity of its hilly streets with the rush of personally conducted parties or of easel-laden artists? Why turn it into another Barbizon or Laguerre's, another Chester or Nuremberg? No; the name of the most picturesque place in the world we shall keep to ourselves. We will give no hints, geographical or geological, statistical or social, historical or humanitarian, mechanical or moral, political or intellectual, as to the site of the city forgotten by Cook, neglected by Murray. We will only ask triumphantly, tantalizingly, 'Do you not wish you knew where to find the most picturesque place in the world?'"

For fourteen years the Spectator had wished he knew where that place was, or how it could be found. On his first trip to Europe he asked many travelers, but learned nothing—those who had read the article were no wiser than he. The search was patiently continued on his second trip, but with no more success. Then, in a strange, unlikely place, he unexpectedly stumbled on what he had so diligently sought. Sailing from Quebec in June, 1907, on a miserable second-class boat, among a shipload of impossible passengers, the Spectator discovered after two days his affinity, a genial and entertaining professor from Tufts College. He also had read the Pennell article, and had patiently but vainly sought the place, until in 1905, while taking a bicycle trip through southern France, he one bright morning emerged from a bit of woods, saw below him a peaceful valley, and nestling in it recognized the original of Mr. Pennell's illustrations. He felt as happy as though he had found Captain Kidd's treasure, and the Spectator was nearly as delighted when told where it was. The Spectator had not been on land many days before he had bought his ticket for Le Puy-en-Velay. Le Puy is five hours by train from Lyons, and Lyons is eight hours south of Paris. The town is situated in a volcanic mountainous region among the foothills of the French Alps.

One might imagine the town to be built in the center of an enormous extinct volcano. In the village proper arise three precipitous volcanic masses of rocky formation; on the outskirts are two more. The most prominent of these rises abruptly five hundred feet above the town and twenty-five hundred feet above the sea. It is surmounted by a colossal statue of the Virgin, whose towering head seems caressed by the clouds. In her outstretched arms she holds aloft over the village the Holy Child, whose hands seem to be waving a perpetual welcome or benediction. On another of these eminences stands a great cathedral, singularly beautiful, and remarkable artistically and architecturally, worthy to be the pride of a great city. This church, dating from the eleventh century, is a remarkably fine example of Byzantine architecture. The Spectator refrains from any account of its artistic treasures and features except to mention a large crucifix on one of the side walls. It was brought down from Paris at the time the decree went into effect excluding such emblems from the courts of law. Underneath is this rather gruesome inscription, in translation reading, "Jesus Christ, banished from the courts of France, has found refuge here." To the right of the village, on a third of these rocky peaks, is an architectural curiosity of wonderful beauty, a veritable "jewel without a casket," to use an expression of Henry IV. It is a chapel dedicated to St. Michael. Farther down the valley are two more heights. Half on and half built into the first is a grotto chapel in which Charles VII was crowned

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king, having heard of the death of Charles VI as he was passing through the town. Last of all is the castle, now in ruins.

Practically the only industry of Le Puy is the manufacture of hand-made lace. Wherever the Spectator walked he saw single workers and groups of women sitting in the squares underneath the trees, or on the shady sides of the narrow and crooked streets. In the open doorways of their homes they sing their old refrains, while the light spindles on the cushions armed with sharp pins hum under their quick fingers. The value of a day's product is about thirty cents. They were always merry and ready to exchange a few words with the Spectator, evidently the only stranger in town. One day, after a trifling purchase, in making payment the keen eyes of an old lady, who said she was ninety-three, spied an American cent in the Spectator's handful of French coins. She was instantly attracted by the Indian's head, inquired where the Indian lived, if he was the Spectator's friend, and was disappointed that he had not even seen him. The Spectator presented the coin to her, and, as he passed down the street and looked back, saw her proudly exhibiting it to her neighbors whom she had called from across the way. The children of Le Puy are many, nearly always pretty, well-mannered, and *clean*. The last virtue is hard to account for, as their mothers make lace all day, and their fathers in the morning drink absinthe and coffee on the east side of the street, and in the afternoon change over to the west side, where they drink coffee and absinthe.

The Spectator's last day was a Sunday, and he dutifully went to the morning service in the cathedral. But the music was painfully hideous, and after twenty minutes of suffering he tiptoed out to the almost deserted streets. Never did getting away from any noise give him greater relief. He walked a mile and a half up the river, and opposite the deserted ruin stood looking longingly at a short cut through a charming garden, and wondering whether a lover of the picturesque should debase himself by trespassing. But he was spared a decision. Among the rose-bushes he saw slowly and painfully straightening himself an old, white-haired man. He raised his trembling hand to shade his eyes, came slowly toward the Spectator, and with the greatest deference and charm of manner inquired if he desired to ascend to the castle. If so, he would unlock the gate and let the Spectator through the high wall if he would honor him by crossing his garden. How delightful and comforting beyond expression it is, in a strange land, to receive such unpurchased and unexpected kindness and consideration! The Spectator admired his roses and tall white lilies, and must wait till he gathered him a bouquet of them. After leaving the garden the path led through a field of brown grain spotted thick with the brilliant poppies and blue cornflowers of England, under fruit trees and up through a tangle of bushes and gorgeous lilies standing nearly as high as the Spectator's head and greeting him with their delicious perfume, till he reached the crumbling steps leading to the castle, standing alone on its dizzy height, deserted for many generations, and now, as far as could be judged by signs, rarely visited. What a boy's paradise of caves, dungeons, and subterranean passages! And what a superb view, and what a painter's paradise—and practically unknown.

As the Spectator writes, he sees in the quietly singing river far below a few red-legged soldiers fishing; boys are swimming; pigeons and ducks are bathing; farther on some women are doing their never-ending wash, beating the wet clothes with little wooden paddles. The volcanoes have been extinguished, and where streams of hot lava once made their deadly progress now stretch as far as sight can reach fields of grain and vineyards full of busy workers. The horizon is of inexhaustible breadth and magnificence, commanded away off to the east by the summit of Mont Blanc, clothed in its eternal snows. But, loveliest of all, nestling in the valley and canopied by the bluest of skies and whitest of fleecy clouds, lie the red-roofed houses of rare Le Puy, those ancient monuments of nature and man, almost appalling in their grandeur.

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THE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE[1]

BY GEORGE W. WICKERSHAM

ATTORNEY-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES

PRIOR to the year 1870, while the Attorney-General was a recognized member of the President's Cabinet, his duties and responsibilities did not differ much from those described in the Judiciary Act of 1789. The general work of prosecuting delinquents for offenses cognizable under the authority of the United States, and that of conducting civil actions in which the United States was concerned in all tribunals other than the Supreme Court, was conducted by the attorneys for the respective districts without reference to or interference by the Attorney-General. But the increased growth of Federal jurisdiction following the Civil War brought to the attention of Congress the need of a more systematic conduct of the legal affairs of the Nation, and in 1870 a law was passed creating the Department of Justice as one of the Executive Departments of the Government, under the direction of the Attorney-General.

The personnel of the Department has been increased from time to time until at present it is composed of the Attorney-General, seven assistants, and the Solicitor-General, besides the Solicitors or Assistant Attorneys-General to the State, Treasury, Interior, and Post-Office Departments, and the Department of Commerce and Labor, who, while nominally under the control of the Department of Justice, are practically legal aides to the heads of the Departments where they are respectively stationed. These officials, with a permanent staff of nine administrative officers, sixty-four attorneys, twenty-four examiners and special agents, and one hundred and eighty-nine clerks, messengers, etc., besides attorneys from time to time especially retained for particular matters, together with eighty-four District Attorneys and their respective assistants and clerks, constitute the working force of the Department of Justice, which conducts all the legal business of the Federal Government. The National jurisdiction is constantly being exercised over new objects, and the range of subjects dealt with by the Department of Justice is therefore constantly expanding. The acts relating to inter-State commerce have developed a large amount of litigation concerning traffic problems, the result of the extension of Federal control over inter-State railway lines, although the initiative and the conduct of these proceedings are, under the present system, shared with the Inter-State Commerce Commission, a division of responsibilities which, it is hoped, will soon be terminated. These also include causes civil and criminal, arising under the Safety Appliance Act, the Twenty-eight-Hour Law, and the Employers' Liability Act.

The enforcement of the land laws of the United States, and the conduct of proceedings to restore to the public domain lands which have been procured from it in violation of Congressional enactment, constitute an enormous volume of civil and criminal litigation little known of in the East, but of great importance and of much public interest to the Western part of the country. This includes suits to set aside and recover to the Government lands the patents for which have been procured by fraud, or, where the title has been acquired by a bona-fide purchaser, to recover the value of the land; suits for illegal fencing of the public domain; and actions for trespass in unlawfully cutting and removing timber from public lands.

A very large number of suits and proceedings are also pending in the Western States to set aside deeds executed by Indians contrary to the provisions against alienation in the acts of Congress providing for the allotment of lands in severalty, brought in the discharge of that guardianship which the United States Government has always maintained to protect them from the designs of sharpers, who are ever ready to take advantage of these simple folk in the exercise by them of their newly

[1] A portion of an address made by the Hon. George W. Wickersham, Attorney-General, before the Pennsylvania Society, in New York, on December 11, 1909.

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acquired rights of ownership and disposition of property.

The enactment of the Pure Food Law, the Meat Inspection Law, the Food and Drugs Act, and the Oleomargarine Law has resulted in a very considerable volume of litigation. Complaints of the violation of these laws usually result from investigations by the agents of the Department of Agriculture, which is primarily charged with the administration of these acts.

All of the Judges of the United States Courts receive their salaries through the Department of Justice, which also supervises the receipts and expenditures of public money by United States marshals, clerks, and other officers of the Federal and Territorial Courts, a jurisdiction which is exercised through the Division of Accounts. No public moneys may be applied to the purchase of lands in any part of the United States for governmental purposes until the titles shall have been approved by the Department of Justice. The defense of claims against the United States in the Court of Claims involves the disposition of four or five thousand cases per annum, and requires a special organization under the direction of an Assistant Attorney-General.

The appointments of all United States Attorneys and Marshals, as well as of Judges of the United States and the Territories, while made by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, are sifted out through the Department of Justice, to which applications are originally addressed—a never-ending volume of difficult and troublesome work.

Another important branch of the Department's jurisdiction is the supervision and control of the penal institutions of the United States, involving the construction of new penitentiaries at Atlanta, Georgia, and Leavenworth, Kansas, and the government of those institutions, as well as the approval of all expenditures from the appropriation for the maintenance of the jail of the District of Columbia. The head of the Department is also charged with the supervision and control of all Federal prisoners, with power, under certain limitations, to remove them from one institution to another, and to restore to them good-conduct allowances, under the Commutation Law, which may have been forfeited by misbehavior. He must also consider all applications for pardon or commutation of sentences of offenders against the United States, and recommend to the President appropriate action thereon. In this work he has the assistance of a Pardon Attorney, but, in order to lighten the task of the President as much as possible, the Attorney-General must himself give the most careful personal attention to these applications, which entail a nice balancing of those extenuating circumstances which the Executive must consider in determining whether or not punishment for crime should be lightened or ended.

The administration of the criminal law of the United States, generally initiated and conducted by the District Attorneys of the respective districts, in all serious and important prosecutions, particularly of offenses against the commerce acts or the act concerning trusts and monopolies, usually involves the personal consideration and direction of the head of the Department of Justice. As the statutes of the United States vest in him complete control over all such prosecutions, he is constantly importuned to interfere with indictments or prosecutions, particularly in cases where proceedings are brought or threatened against persons of high social standing or of conspicuous political or business position. That the prosecution of crime cannot be properly influenced by consideration of the wealth or position of the offender is, of course, axiomatic. A more difficult consideration arises where there has been a systematic disregard or misinterpretation of statutes, and a particular investigation or prosecution discloses the fact that a large portion of a business community has been conducting its business more or less in violation of the law. Such cases require discrimination on the part of the prosecutor. Where there is a reasonable doubt as to the application of a statute the violation of which constitutes the offense, and there is no question of violation of the moral law, and the offenders appear to have acted in honest reliance upon a construction of the law which, while claimed by the Government to be erroneous, is nevertheless one which may honestly be entertained,

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and the question can be determined as well in a civil suit as by a criminal prosecution, the head of the Department of Justice may properly exercise his discretion by directing that the construction of the act be determined in a civil rather than in a criminal proceeding. If, as a result, the Government's interpretation be upheld, those who fairly and honestly conform in their practices to the requirements of the law as so interpreted should not ordinarily be prosecuted criminally for violations of the law committed before such authoritative interpretation. But where no such question arises, and the acts constituting the offense appear to be in direct violation of the law, and the only justification is that it is the general custom of others engaged in the like business to proceed in similar fashion—in such cases, even if no criminal intent were involved in the sense that there was no intention to violate the moral law, it is not part of the legitimate function of the chief officer of justice to interfere with the due and orderly prosecution of the offense by indictment and trial; and considerations of individual environment, personal intent, or the prevailing custom among others to act in the like manner should be left for disposition upon application for Executive clemency, after the processes of the courts have been exhausted.

One further branch of the jurisdiction of the Department, exercised from the foundation of the Government, is that of rendering opinions to the President and the heads of other Departments upon questions submitted by them from time to time. With the great increase in the burdens upon the head of the Department, Congress has mercifully decreed that all opinions prepared by the Assistant Attorneys-General and approved by the head of the Department may be received and acted upon in like manner as his own opinions. Even this calls upon him to exercise at least an intelligent supervision over the work of his subordinates, and requires him to give consideration to a wide range of subjects. Glancing over the last one or two volumes of published opinions, one is struck with the great variety of subjects dealt with. They include, among others: Various applications of the eight-hour law; the application of the Meat Inspection Law to meats imported from foreign countries; the status of certain retired officers of the navy; the powers of the President over the Canal Zone and the jurisdiction of the Isthmian Canal Commission; questions as to the status of Cherokee and Choctaw Indians and the other so-called "Five Civilized Tribes;" the effect on the Tea Inspection Law of 1897 of the Food and Drugs Act of 1906, the authority of the Legislative Assembly of Porto Rico to pass laws for the organization of corporations; the application of immigration and contract labor laws; the authority of the agents of the Department of Commerce and Labor to seize and search vessels suspected of a violation of the Alaska seal fisheries regulations within the three-mile limit; the constructions and applications of the Civil Service Law; the right of the Secretary of Agriculture to employ and pay geologists to examine mining claims in forest reserves; the powers of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor in the enforcement of the Steamboat Inspection Law; the construction of orders of the Post-Office Department as to weighing the mails; the powers of the Secretary of Agriculture to grant permits for the use of lands or resources within the forest reserves; the exclusion of seditious matter from the mails; and the power of the Philippine Legislature to establish agricultural banks.

I have not attempted to enumerate all of the various branches of the work of the Department of Justice, or even to touch upon its ordinary work, familiar to all, in connection with the internal revenue laws, the customs law, the preparation and argument of cases in the Supreme Court, etc. My effort is merely to indicate something of the extent of its activities. It is a constant growth, coincident and commensurate with the widening application of Federal jurisdiction. It must increase with the increase of population and the inevitable extension of Federal control over the great businesses of the country.

Two years ago one of New York's most illustrious citizens pointed out the increasing growth of Federal power, and warned the States of their duty to assert and enforce their own jurisdiction, lest that which was properly theirs should, from

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sheer disuse, fall into Federal hands. Senator Root later renewed this warning and spoke of the rapid growth of centralized power in Washington, the difficulty of the intelligent and efficient administration of the affairs of this vast Nation by the bureaus and departments of the capital, and emphasized the need of State action in matters properly within State jurisdiction. I heartily concur in all he said, but at the same time I am firmly convinced of the necessity for the vigorous assertion of Federal power over those subjects devolved upon the National Government by the Constitution of the United States, which the experience of a century has shown cannot be properly and adequately managed by the States. The commerce of this country has become almost entirely inter-State and international commerce. The States have demonstrated their complete inability either properly to regulate and control that commerce, or intelligently and efficiently to create and control adequate agencies to carry it on. The National Government has been literally compelled to exercise its indisputable power to regulate inter-State and international commerce, by undertaking the regulation and control of inter-State railways, and to devise and enforce legislation to check the growth of great monopolies and combinations, in order to prevent the absorption into the hands of a very few men of all the great industries of the land. This work the National Government must carry out thoroughly and effectively. It cannot delegate it nor leave any part of it to the States. Its control over this subject is, under the Constitution, complete, comprehensive, and exclusive. With a consciousness of this power must come also the recognition of its duty to legislate on these subjects with a single eye to the welfare of the whole country, not merely destructively, but constructively. This responsibility is, of course, primarily with the Congress. A representative of the Executive Department can only suggest the line of legislative development. If his suggestions should result in shaping that legislation so as to provide a means for the legitimate development of American industry on safe lines under proper Federal regulation and control, he will have enjoyed a high privilege which may well satisfy the most ardent ambition.

THE ETHICAL TEACHINGS OF JESUS

III.—GODLINESS

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

IF we wish to understand the unity of Christ's life and teachings, we must understand what he taught as regards our relation to God. What did he mean by Godliness?

There has been a great deal of theological discussion on the question, What was Christ's pre-existent relation to the Father and what is his post-resurrection relation to the Father? These are questions in speculative theology, and my subject in these articles is not theological, but ethical. I consider simply what he taught about our relations to the Father, and what light the teaching of his own relation to the Father in his earthly life throws on our life problems.

Jesus was not an agnostic, deist, or theologian

Jesus was not an agnostic. To him God was not the Unknown and Unknowable. Nor was he a deist. God was not a hypothesis to account for phenomena, a hypothetical Creator to explain the creation. He never argued the existence of a God, nor do his teachings contain any element out of which such an argument can be constructed. Nor was he a theologian. He did not present any philosophy about God, any analysis of God's character, any attempted catalogue of his attributes, nor even any definition of him. One looks in vain in his teaching for any such science of God as is

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attempted in the Westminster Shorter Catechism:

> God is a Spirit, infinite, eternal, and unchangeable, in his being, wisdom, power, holiness, justice, goodness, and truth.

The nearest approach to this is his statement that God is spirit, and is to be spiritually worshiped.

Nor was the relation of Jesus to God that of a servant to a master, or a subject to a king. He never calls himself the servant of God, he never calls God king, or sovereign, or the moral governor of the universe. He does not discuss the power or the sovereignty or the authority of God. Conclusions as to the sovereignty and authority of God may be deduced from his teaching; but they are incidental to that teaching, not the direct subject of it.

God man's comrade

To him God was a companion, a comrade, a friend, a personal experience. He exhausted language in the endeavor to put before his disciples the intimacy of this relationship. He is my Father, he said; he always hears me; I know him and understand him; he knows me and understands me; we work together; what I do, I do by the grace of his companionship; what I say, I say by the grace of his inspiring; I am in him; he is in me; I and my Father are one. Out of these and kindred declarations theology has constructed a complicated theory of the personality of God. Whether that theory is correct or not I do not here consider. I am concerned here only with the earthly relation of Jesus to God and the teaching of Jesus concerning our earthly relation to God. And no reader of the Gospels can doubt, whatever his theology, that this relationship was, in the mind of Jesus, one of most intimate companionship.

Nor can it be doubted that he sought to give something of this companionship to his disciples. He not only said, God is my Father, he told his disciples to call God "our Father." In the one prayer of his for his disciples of which we have a report, he said, I have come, Father, that they may know thee; and I have made them to know thee; and thy utterance of thyself to me I have given to them; and I pray that as thou art in me and I in thee, that so they may be one in us. Jesus did not come to teach us about God, but to introduce us to God, to make us personally acquainted with him. It is one thing to give to a friend an analytical description of your father; it is quite another thing to bring your friend into your home and introduce him to your father. Jesus did not do the first; he did do the second.

The relationship which he sought to establish between his disciples and God was not that of an obedient subject to a great lawgiver; it was that of a loyal and loving son to a just and generous father. It was not that of mere obedience; it was that of spiritual loyalty. Two Germans come to America. They are equally obedient to its laws. But one means, as soon as he has earned a little money, to go back to his fatherland; the other, enamored of American institutions and the American spirit, means at the earliest possible day to become an American citizen. One is a German living in America; the other is an American born in Germany. What Christ wished for his disciples was, not that they should be obedient foreigners, such as the first German, but loyal citizens of the kingdom of God.

Pharisaism is obedience to law; Christianity is love and loyalty to a Father

It was this that marked the difference between the teaching of Jesus and the teaching of the Pharisee. The Pharisees were not all hypocrites. It would not be far wrong to call them the Puritans of the first century. To them God was a lawgiver, and righteousness was obedience to his laws. Some of the Pharisees—those of the more liberal school—laid emphasis on the moral commands of God as they were embodied in the two laws, Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy strength, and with all thy mind; and thy neighbor as thyself. Others insisted on exact obedience to all the rules and regulations of the Levitical code, and added to them an elaborate ceremonial ritual which they taught had been handed down from ancient days by oral tradition. But, widely as they differed in this important respect, they agreed in regarding obedience to law as the essence of righteousness.

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Jesus taught a different lesson. To Jesus God was not a lawgiver but a Father, and the crown of righteousness was not civic obedience to legal enactments, but sympathetic fellowship with and spiritual loyalty to an adored Father. So he said very little about law; and very little about rewards for obedience and penalty for disobedience. One of his stories was told to illustrate this difference between his teaching and that of the Pharisees. The Pharisees, who counted themselves the servants of the Most High, thought that they were earning by their obedience to their king a seat at the king's table in the kingdom of God. Said Jesus to them: When your servant has finished his plowing or the feeding of your cattle, and comes in from his work, do you ask him to sit down at your table with you? Do you thank him because he has done the work he was hired to do? I think not. If you are only servants of the Most High, do not expect a reward; you have only done what it was your duty to do.

To Jesus law was not an end but a means. If obedience to the Sabbath law impeded a useful service to humanity, or involved the sacrifice of the life of even an ox or an ass, or even the discomfort of temporary hunger, it was to be set aside. Man was lord of the Sabbath, because the Sabbath was made for man. Not merely to abstain from killing, but to abstain from unjustifiable anger; not merely to abstain from adultery, but to abstain from impure desire; not merely to abstain from profanity, but to be simple and sincere in heart—this is righteousness. The blessing is not on those who have obeyed either the ceremonial or the moral law, but on those who are filled with the spirit of a great and inspiring peace, who are pure in heart, who are full of mercy, who, knowing their imperfections, are inspired by aspirations for a better life. And when he was accused of setting aside the law by these teachings, he replied: You do not understand. I am come not to destroy the law, nor yet to teach obedience to the law, but to arouse and inspire that life of doing justly, loving mercy, and walking humbly with God which it was the object of the law to promote. I am come to fulfill the law.

The road to fellowship with God

The most important theme in the teaching of Jesus, around which all his other teaching centered, was this: How can we come into this intimacy of companionship with God? And to that question his answer was, Not by studying philosophies about God, nor by devoting one's self to synagogue or Temple worship of God, nor even by obedience to the supposed law of God, but by working for God and with God to accomplish God's purposes in the history of the race. To have our own purpose to serve, our own ends to accomplish, our own will to achieve, and to desire God as a sleeping partner, who will not interfere needlessly with our methods, but will help us through any difficult crisis in our affairs—that is false religion—common, but false. To see that God has a purpose to accomplish, a will to achieve, and to be eager to share with him, at whatever cost to ourselves, in accomplishing that purpose—that is true religion.

This was the religion of Jesus of Nazareth. He never asked the Father, Help me to accomplish my will; he asked the Father, Help me to accomplish thy will. This was the secret of his spiritual life: not merely dependence on his Father; not merely obedience—doing the will of the Father; not merely resignation—bearing without complaint the burdens laid on him by the will of his Father; but consecration—the identification of his will with the will of his Father. The supreme, masterful wish of his life was to accomplish his Father's will. I have come to do the will of him that sent me; my meat is to do the will of him that sent me; my teaching is not mine, but the teaching of him that sent me; the works that I do are his, and bear witness to him that sent me; he that sent me has given me my commission, and how am I straitened till it is accomplished: these are some of the sentences scattered through his teaching that interpret his spirit. Self-will is not the strongest will. The strongest will is one that is devoted to a great mission and loyal to a great leader. Such was the will of Jesus; it was set to do his Father's will and to accomplish his Father's purpose.

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Christ's life passion

The only story we have of his boyhood indicates how early in life this spirit pervaded him. He went up with his parents in Passover week to Jerusalem; became separated from them; and after they had gone a day's journey from the city they returned to seek him, a boy twelve years of age. They found him, not gazing at the city sights, nor visiting the city shops, nor listening to the splendid if barbaric music of the Temple, nor fascinated by its gorgeous ritual. They found him in the one university of the Holy Land asking of the rabbis there the questions about the kingdom of God which his synagogue teachers could not answer. And he was naïvely surprised that they did not know where to find him. Where else could he be than where he could take advantage of this one occasion of his life to learn something from the great men of his nation about his Father's business?

His whole life is absolutely dominated by this spirit of consecration to Another's will. He begins his public ministry in the synagogue at Nazareth, the village of his boyhood home, by a sermon in which he publicly dedicates himself to that service to which his Father had appointed him:

The Spirit of the Lord is upon me,
Because he hath anointed me to preach good tidings to the poor:
He hath sent me to heal the broken-hearted,
to proclaim release to the captives,
And recovering of sight to the blind,
To set at liberty them that are bruised,
To proclaim the acceptable year of the Lord.

To the work thus outlined he devotes his brief life, without hasting, without resting, without deviation. If men are hungry, he feeds them; if ignorant, he teaches them; if in sorrow, he comforts them; if discouraged, he heartens them. He is equally ready to preach to admiring crowds in Galilee and to execrating and tumultuous crowds in Jerusalem; to a congregation of thousands on the hillside, to a congregation of hundreds gathered upon the shore of the lake, to one lone outcast woman by the well. No man is too high or too intrenched for his rebuke, none too lowly, too despised, or too sinful for his sympathy. His Father's spirit is the secret of his patient love for his disciples, which even the treachery of Judas Iscariot cannot exhaust; it is the secret of his indignation against the profaners of the Temple who have turned his Father's house into a den of thieves. At last the tragic end draws nigh. Despite the remonstrance of his disciples, he marches up to Jerusalem, they following sorrowfully and perplexed after him. He escapes from the city to his accustomed retreat in the garden in the environs. His prayer there is not a prayer of resignation, but of dedication. His request is not denied, but granted. For his request is, *Not* my will, but thine, be done. For answer, the cup of anguish which Judas Iscariot, the apostate disciple, Caiaphas, the recreant priest, and Pilate, the coward governor, hand to him, is to him the cup which his Father gives to him, and he takes it without shrinking. Only once in that last terrible hour does his spirit seem to fail: it is when, in the darkness, it seems to him as though, after all, he had somehow failed of his Father's purpose, and he cries out with the cry of an orphan, My God, my God, why hast thou forsaken me? And then the great peace that comes with the consciousness of his Father's will fulfilled descends upon him, and his life ends with the triumphant cry of triumph, It is finished, and he escapes from the malice of his enemies to the refuge of his Father, with the words, Father, into thy hands I commend my spirit.

Godliness is more than correct belief about God, more than obedience to God's law, more than trust in God's protecting care. It is the consecration of one's life and all its energies to the accomplishment of God's will in the world, in a spirit of joyous, loyal companionship with him.

What is God's will? What is he seeking to accomplish in the world? What was Jesus seeking to accomplish? What did he commission his disciples to accomplish for the future? In other words, what was to him that "blessed hope" to which he looked, and which he put before his followers as their motive to action and inspiration to life? That will be the subject of the next and closing paper of this series.

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GIFFORD PINCHOT AND THE SWORDFISH

BY CHARLES FREDERICK HOLDER

OUT in the Pacific, about forty miles from Los Angeles, twenty miles beyond Santa Catalina, a long, mountainous, cañon-riven island belonging to the Government stretches for twenty or more miles along the surface, like some crouching monster of the sea. When it was discovered by Vizcaino in 1656 it happened to be the day of Saint Clement, and San Clemente it is to this day; the home of the biggest game fishes of this thrice-blessed piscatorial region—the swordfish, tuna, yellowtail, and white and black sea bass.

I have wandered over and about the island many times, and for the past three years have fished its waters with Gifford Pinchot, whose adventure I propose to describe; not that he could not do it far more effectively, but I am confident that he is much too modest to be judicially fair to himself even in a fish story. So, having been hot on his trail for several hours, taking the sea dust from his game, and wishing myself ashore by the camp-fire more than once, I am going to spin the yarn from the standpoint of a close observer.

Swordfishes had been seen for a week. Occasionally a long, slender form glistened in the air, a dazzling spectacle as it fell with a resounding crash; and one day, as we lay off an attractive but diminutive replica of the Grand Cañon which cut its sinuous way up and into the heart of the island, a big swordsman of the sea bearing on his escutcheon the noble pseudonym *Tetrapturus mitsukurii* came swinging down alongshore. The blue and radiant waters here abound in sunfishes, which continually leap into the air, swimming in pairs, brigades, and companies, their long dorsals waving in the sun; and in the excitement of anticipation it was easy to mistake them for the real game. But once clearly seen the mistake was rarely repeated.

On one occasion a swordfish came down the San Clemente Rialto with a swagger unmistakable, the tall, slender dorsal and top of the caudal following each other at a rakish angle, suggestive of the rapier just below; and as he swam the swordsman seemed to bend slightly to right and left, as became a swashbuckler of the sea. He assumed a nonchalant air, paid little or no attention to our launch, moving south along the rocky slopes of the island a few hundred yards from shore; now with a companion, again alone; swimming slowly and evidently in a peaceful frame of mind, as mild-mannered a fellow as ever rammed a ship or broke a line!

Up anchor and at him! was the order, and but a few moments were required to place the launch in his way; the lure, a big flying-fish, with a twenty-four-strand line and a sixteen-ounce rod—the prescribed tackle of the Tuna Club for such game.

This individual swordfish well illustrated the strange uncertainty of angling, whether it be for trout or the larger game of the sea. Pinchot was the chosen duelist, and took his place with Mexican Joe in a light skiff which we towed astern, the theory being that a big fish can be fought at better advantage in this way, as the oarsman can back the boat up to the flying game when hooked; also the skiff can be cast off at the strike, allowing the launch to follow or stand by. For two hours every known expedient and bait was tried to attract the attention of this swordfish, which complacently swam down the coast, now turning out or in as we caught his eye, but rarely changing from the even tenor of his way. Once as I stood in the stern I saw him follow up the line to within ten feet of the boat—a radiantly beautiful creature in an investment of labradorite blue which seemed to assimilate with the enchanting hue of the water

Once or twice it was supposed the swordfish charged the bait, but he was not hooked, and he appeared to have a bored expression as he turned off, so

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close to the launch that nearly his entire shape could be seen, and the lifting and lowering of the tall dorsal in its scabbard was readily observed as the fish turned or sank below the surface in a region of marine delights, where poised and swam countless beautiful animate forms. In fact, in fishing for this exciting game or watching the attempts to take it one was constantly diverted by the enchantments of the ocean. The water teemed with life; long chains of *Salpæ* took every possible shape, other chains might have been made up of pink and yellow roses, sports of weird beauty resembling myriads of jellyfishes the size of a saucer joined together, or here broken apart. It seemed practically impossible for a swordfish nine or ten feet long to swim here without continually impaling these garlands of the ocean or picking them up on its sword in passive carte or tierce.

Deep in the blue were vivid gems in pink, red, blue, and yellow, the little crustacean *Sapphirina* gleaming in iridescent rays. In a single glance the eye swept all the gradients of grace, beauty, and loveliness in the drifting evanescent jellies of the sea, which at night became blazing lights, converting the grim recesses into realms of strange beauty, while every wave that broke on the strand became a blaze of splendid light.

Our clever skipper placed Pinchot's bait over, in front, and on the side of the swordsman; but it was of no avail. Then we ran into another, which struck and jerked so much line from the reel in so short a time and with so vehement a suggestion of power that we suspected a tuna. All this, and more; yet this day was a blank so far as a swordfish was concerned.

From my tent I could see at night a blaze of light as a higher wave than usual was tossed into the air. One morning, not much later than the time this display was visible, Pinchot, with Mexican Joe, started in quest of swordfish, and when Governor Pardee and I were discussing breakfast, two hours later, we heard cheers and ribald musical notes, and a few moments later we saw the game—a splendid swordfish which tipped the scales at one hundred and seventy pounds, or thereabouts, which leaped, by actual count, over fifty times before it was brought to gaff, and fought the angler nearly two hours.

Pinchot had his angling appetite whetted to a nicety by the morning swordfish, and in the afternoon he again went out with Mexican Joe in the eighteen-foot launch, fishing from a skiff towed behind the launch. The latter was run by the twelve-year-old boy Joaquin Arce, one of the brightest and pluckiest boys it has been my good fortune to know.

The Governor and I were lounging on the beach about five o'clock, with no ambition for strenuous recreation, when we sighted the launch coming in at full speed. In a few moments Joaquin rounded up and reported from the seat of war that Mr. Pinchot was fast to a big swordfish about three miles offshore, and would I not go out and stand by? The blue haze was deepening up the big Mosquito rift behind us and the headlands of the island were fast changing to the brilliant tints they take on before night, while far up the island the afternoon fog was pouring down the rocky slopes—a thing of beauty glorified beyond power of expression.

I went aboard, and we turned out to sea, but the boy—Joaquin—had lost the direction of the skiff, so we went on a hunt for it. I sent him aloft, but still he could not see the craft. After a while I sighted it on a wave, a mere speck, possibly three miles to the southeast. Joaquin had lighted the lantern, so that the anglers could see us if we missed them, and I headed directly for them.

They were moving rapidly, and I was forced to haul continually to the north. Curiously enough, the boy could not see the boat, and, through no fault of his, doubtless would never have found her, as she was being towed at full speed up the coast and offshore. With difficulty I kept the anglers in sight, and when I reached them, it was so dark that I could just see Pinchot bending to the rod as he shouted to me and Mexican Joe behind pushing at the oars in a gallant attempt to force the boat up over the fish to enable Pinchot to gain line.

There was a fair sea on now, and as I fell behind the procession, to stand by until the gaffing, it was one of the most exhilarating spectacles of daring sport I had ever observed, with a spice of danger

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thrown in. We gave them a cheer, and Pinchot shouted that the fish had leaped fifteen times immediately after it was hooked, and that he had brought it alongside several times, but could not hold it.

From the speed at which they were going I saw that something remarkable had been hooked. I had been towed once in an open boat ten or more miles by a large tuna, but not at such a continuous speed as this. I slowed down thirty feet from the skiff, just behind, and, believing that there was a chance of her filling in the rising sea, tried to maintain this position, my left hand on the engine lever, my right hand on the wheel, with Joaquin in the bow to keep a lookout. And here I saw, or tried to see, Pinchot make the fight of his life with a swordfish.

I suppose the fish was towing them at a rate of five miles an hour, and it should be remarked that the line was not much larger than an eyeglass cord, of twenty-four strands, with a breaking strength of two pounds to a strand. The angler had from one hundred and fifty to three hundred feet out, approximately, and the towing was by the tip of the rod, the butt being in a socket on the seat.

The work cut out for Pinchot, sitting in a skiff going at five miles an hour stern-first against a big sea in the dark, was to reel in a fish, fighting mad and crazed by fear, that was anywhere from nine to ten feet in length, weighing from one hundred and fifty to a possible three hundred and fifty pounds. If by any mistake over forty-eight lifting pounds were put on the line, it would break; the pressure was applied by the thumb upon a leather pad on the wound line, and the reel had a capacity of six hundred feet, with a click and an anti-overrunning appliance.

It has been my good luck to be a party to some interesting sea fights with finny game in the Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico, and around the waters of the Pacific coast; indeed, I have been a witness to contests of a character to be doubted by the layman who was not present; but of all these, this fight of Gifford Pinchot with a swordfish, as I saw it, always in his wake, sometimes too near for his comfort and safety, impressed me as the pluckiest and most sensational angling experience I had seen or heard of. Later Pinchot was inclined to laugh at my enthusiasm, but he was playing the fish and I was the cool and damp spectator. In the excitement he forgot the danger, while it was my business to know it, and, if possible, avert it.

The swordfish was constantly edging out into rougher water, pulling the skiff down by the stern, and I feared a repetition of a disagreeable experience I once had: a tuna was hauling me, stern-first, against the sea when along came one of the peculiar big waves which are often seen. The tuna rushed at it just at the wrong time, and the stern of the boat smashed into the combing wave, nearly filling her. But that was in daylight. It was different here.

There are various stories current at Avalon about the danger of this sport (the Smithsonian has a record of many attacks of swordfishes on boats and ships), and a number of anglers have broken the line and retreated before the menacing attitude of the fish. But this did not worry Pinchot; what actually terrified him was Joe's snorting eighteen-foot launch under my guidance. I was a sort of wild marine *el toro* coming at him from all directions out of the darkness; now almost aboard on the top of a roller, now too much ahead, threatening the line, as the fish constantly changed its direction several points, and I was always losing sight of them. Now I would stop twenty-five feet from the skiff and, caught broadside on by the seas, would be almost thrown out of the boat; then, losing the skiff, I would slam back the lever and rush ahead at full speed until Joaquin in the bow would shout, "Here they are!" and hard around to port I would send the launch, missing the flying skiff by a few feet.

Oh, it was wild sport, that game of tag after Pinchot, and every once in a while he would shout, "I've got him again!" Then I would creep up, throw off the clutch, stand by, and try to watch him, until the scream of the reel came down the wind, telling that the fish was away again. Fourteen or fifteen times this fish was brought alongside, and as many times Mexican Joe handled his gaff and dropped it to seize the oars and back the skiff after it.

No angler ever played a fish better than

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did Pinchot that night. The channel is a treacherous one, and the conditions not all that one would wish. Sudden fogs, high winds, heavy seas, extraordinary currents, are some of the conditions, and a breakdown of my launch was more than possible, as what I do not know about gasoline engines would make a large and comfortable volume, due to a certain disinterestedness on my part for machinery. I kept my right hand on the wheel (where I was at home), my left on the lever (where I was very much at sea), and that I often backed when I intended to go ahead was but an incident in the game.

I had it all to myself, as I had stationed Joaquin in the bow to keep the skiff in sight. That I did not jerk individual horse-powers out of that engine is one of the mysterious dispensations of Providence, as it buckled, talked back, coughed, conjured, growled, bellowed, and hissed oil at me from every pore and joint, while I pulled the lever and jammed it in, in the wild chase after Pinchot. Now I could see him dimly bracing to it, pumping with all his strength, gaining a foot to lose two, literally hauling the skiff up over the flying swordfish, and standing all the strain on the tip of the rod and his arms.

That it was a good and hard fight only those who have tried fishing for tuna or swordfish really know. The fish never stops; he fights until he is dead. When you rest, he seems to rest twice as fast; to rest is to lose. Apparently Pinchot never let up on his reeling and pumping, yet time and again the fish would dash off, towing the skiff at a terrific rate. Then suddenly I would hear a shout out of the gloom, "You're on top of us!" and I would jerk a few horse-powers out of that long-suffering engine and slow up, hanging in the seaway to catch a glimpse of Pinchot and Joe on the top of a wave shooting along behind the mysterious unknown steed, of the sea flying, and the spume in the air as they fell away, of the rhythmic motion of Joe's sure stroke, the glint of the rod in the faint glare of the lantern which I had put aboard, and now and then the dim outline of Pinchot's back as he bent over the rod and made the good fight.

As the night grew apace and darkness fully set in, the phosphorescence of the sea began to assert itself, and every crest and piece of broken water became a flash and gleam of silvery light under the stern of the skiff. Occasionally in turning I would get caught in the trough of the sea, and fiery flames would leap all about, when a mellifluous "Gee!" would come from my small lookout clinging to the mast lest he be tossed bodily over into the fiery sea.

The moon, in the early quarter, was gradually dropping over the mountains of San Clemente, standing over to the west, and the stars glistened with a steely intensity. It was a great night to be at sea, as by some fortuitous circumstance the wind did not blow as hard as usual, or there would have been another ending to this veracious tale. How far the swordfish towed the skiff I do not know, but I should guess at least five miles. I picked them up about three miles to the southeast offshore, and to reach them went directly away from Mosquito Bay and our camp; and when the end came we were a long distance out to the northeast of the camp. I sighted the fire on the beach, made by Governor Pardee after about an hour, and the swordfish took the skiff gradually by it, going always to the north in long, well-sustained spurts of speed, during which I fancy there was little to do but hold on and dodge the flying spume.

No angler ever had a better boatman; Mexican Joe was in the fight to win. Good judgment, skill, endurance, and underlying love of the sport were his qualifications, and all through the battle he managed the skiff in a masterly manner; avoiding the sea, easing her over the waves, pushing, backing her after the flying fish, and, when opportunity offered, forcing the light boat astern in order that the angler might gain a little line. What impressed me all the time was the strength of the fish, the speed at which it was towing them against the sea, and the mysterious manner in which the anglers eluded me; they seemed to be swallowed up by the night the moment they got fifty feet away.

Suddenly, as I was chasing them, or going in the direction in which I saw them disappear, I heard a shout from Pinchot, "We've got him alongside!" The wind was blowing the sea high and tossing us about, but Joaquin, my plucky

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lookout and engineer (as he really knew how to start the engine if it should refuse to go), rose to the occasion and let out a shout and cheer, and at them we went. Before I knew it, I saw Mexican Joe's back directly under the bow, and I nearly lifted that eight-horse-power engine out of the launch in my attempts to back her away. But it was too late. A sea tossed me over and the skiff seemed suddenly to come at me out of the night. I must have put the launch ahead instead of astern; perhaps I had her backing and going ahead at the same time.

I did not hit the skiff, but I disconcerted Joe, who cried, "I've lost him!" The gaff had slipped or Joe had lost his hold, and there was a crashing and bounding, and choice talk in Spanish, I think; a medley of sounds, with my own shouts to Joaquin, anxious to see the fish and in my line of vision; and then Pinchot's voice, "I've got him by the tail!"

So he had, and he held the floundering fish with grim desperation until Joe got a fresh hold with his gaff and a rope about him; as Pinchot told me later, he determined to hang on to the swordfish if he went overboard.

My launch gathered sternway, and I backed off and came up to leeward and watched them take the 180-pound swordfish into the skiff; then Joaquin and I, who was much the youngest just then, stood up and made the channel ring. After the fish had been made fast and sure beyond any possibility, I ran alongside and took the fishermen aboard; then we took the skiff in tow and swung in toward the black mass on the horizon to the west. It was some time before we picked up the cañon, but suddenly Governor Pardee's bonfire gleamed up, and we headed for it, the air full of congratulations, apologies, explanations, and laughter.

Launches in Southern California waters are obliged by law to carry a large bell, a sort of trombone-like instrument, and another, a near relative of the accordion with a dash of flutes and harmonicas in its make-up. This nameless instrument of torture can be worked by the foot, after the plan of a bellows. Thus Mexican Joe had a band, which we promptly put in action, and, victorious, towed the game inshore, landing it in due time. Later we sat about the mess-table and heard and discussed the story.

There may have been more said about some of the great victories and battles of history, but that night the Pinchot swordfish held the boards at San Clemente. The next morning it was photographed and examined, and found to be a perfect specimen, nearly ten feet long, that weighed about one hundred and eighty pounds; as trim an oceanic privateer as could be caught in many a day. Its slender sword, rapier-like, its under jaw a perfect poniard, its large, staring black eyes, the powerful tail and big dorsal fitting into a perfect scabbard, its rakish horizontal balancers at the tail, the strangely defined black vertical stripes about the body, the lead-colored remoras clinging to it, all bespoke a piscatorial Dreadnought.

From the big launch in the morning, while towing the skiff, I had watched other swordfishes at long and short range. We stopped in front of the cruisers many times and waited for them to come up. They would see the keel of our launch one hundred feet away, and one another even farther off, having some unknown method of finding their fellows as we separated them and saw the fins several hundred feet apart, then observed them join forces again after a brief disappearance, rising to swim with the big dorsal and tail fin high out of the water. When a turn was made, the dorsal came fully out of the scabbard.

It was the consensus of opinion of Pinchot and others who have taken these fishes and tarpon that the swordfish (*Tetrapturus*) is the superior as a game fish; and of the eight or nine taken in Santa Catalina waters in 1909 with rod and reel, ranging from one hundred and fifty to three hundred and fifty pounds, nearly all outjumped the tarpon and displayed more strength. One angler counted over fifty leaps. Pinchot counted forty-eight in his first San Clemente fish, fifteen in the night fish before sundown, and how many times it leaped after night closed in is not known. This depends upon the hooking, as does the endurance of the fish.

The swordfish herein described was caught with two hooks, one in its mouth,

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the other exactly in the middle of the forehead, and it was by the latter hook that the fish was played. So Pinchot was literally driving the steed by a single rein, which makes the catch remarkable. No wonder it literally defied the efforts of two men. It was practically free but for the long, thread-like driving line leading back from its dome-shaped forehead.

As to the ferocity of these fishes there is no question. They have the strength to penetrate ships, and the inclination at times, and have often accomplished it, according to authentic records taken by the Government. And that the angler takes more risk in playing them in the open sea than any other game fish may be fairly conceded.

CAN THE SALOON BE REFORMED?

For many years those engaged in the liquor traffic met every attack with a counter-attack upon some phase or other of the temperance movement. In later years, however, a number of liquor dealers and manufacturers have undertaken to meet the anti-saloon movement by an attempt to reform the liquor business from within. As a consequence there has been organized what is known as the National Model License League. As it has been officially characterized, it is "an organization of liquor interests and allied trades advocating a form of law designed to take the liquor question out of politics and to put the lawbreakers out of the liquor business." Its policy was stated in a letter from its President, Mr. T. M. Gilmore, which was published in The Outlook for February 13 of last year. In brief, this policy is that of giving to licenses the value of property of which the holder could not be deprived without due process of law; of limiting the number of licenses to a certain proportion of the population; of keeping the license rate low enough to avoid tempting the holder to reimburse himself by selling inferior beverages; and of exacting rigorous and mandatory penalties. The Outlook has expressed its strong dissent from this policy. To give a license or a franchise a property value is to create a new vested right. The problems that the Government has now to deal with arising out of existing vested rights ought to be enough to deter it from creating new ones. Nevertheless, The Outlook has expressed its gratification at the evidence afforded by this Model License League that liquor dealers and manufacturers are regardful of public opinion and are seriously concerned at the evils connected with their business. Even if, however, there were no question as to the nature of the liquor license, there would yet remain the more fundamental question as to whether the American saloon as it now exists is capable of reform, or whether it is essentially evil. It is this question that is discussed in the following correspondence between the President of the National Model License League and the Editor-in-Chief of The Outlook. It is because this correspondence states clearly a fundamental issue which is often beclouded in discussions of the liquor question, and incidentally because it elicits the interesting fact that the President of the League, who is connected with "Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular," is in favor of the principle of local option, that we publish it in full herewith.—THE EDITORS.

January 5, 1910.

Dr. Lyman Abbott, Editor The Outlook, New York City:

Dear Doctor—The Third Annual Convention of the National Model License League will take place at the Planters' Hotel, in St. Louis, on February 3 and 4, and I feel that this work is now well enough known for men like Dr. Lyman Abbott to look into it thoroughly, and, if possible, to indorse it as a common-sense solution of what is known as the liquor problem.

I therefore write to ask if you would agree to come out and address this Convention, and let us syndicate your address to the press of the country. To come to a convention and speak to a lot of brewers, distillers, wholesalers, and the like requires some moral courage on the part of a man holding the position that you do in society, but then you have the moral courage, and certainly there is no one in this country who would say that you were in the pay of the liquor men, and if you did some plain talking to the liquor

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men, I am sure that they would appreciate it.

We would like to have you come to the Convention as our guest, and you would most certainly have the earnest attention of every member.

If you are willing to come, I would appreciate it if you would wire me on receipt of this, so that we could arrange the programme accordingly.

Very truly yours,

T. M. GILMORE,

President National Model License League.

Louisville, Kentucky.

January 18, 1910.

Mr. T. M. Gilmore, President:

Dear Sir—Your letter of January 5 came in my absence from the office, hence my delay in replying. I already am engaged on the date which you have named, and this engagement would make it impossible for me to accept your invitation.

But, in truth, my views are such that I do not believe I could be of any service to your Convention were I able to accept the invitation. I am heartily glad that those who are engaged in the liquor traffic are taking this matter up, and are endeavoring to make much-needed reforms in the way in which that traffic is too often carried on. I heartily appreciate the difficulty of their work, and should be glad to render them any service in my power, but the reform which seems to me necessary is so radical that I do not think any presentation of it to the Convention by me would be of value. Whatever use alcoholic liquor may properly have as a beverage, I am clear in my own mind, first, that distilled liquors should never be used except under the advice of a physician; and, second, that beers and light wines, if taken as a beverage at all, should be taken only in connection with meals. All physiologists, I think, are agreed that taking alcohol upon an empty stomach is injurious, except in the rare cases in which the resultant disturbance is necessary for medical reasons. This principle, if it be sound, is fatal to the saloon as ordinarily conducted in America, because the saloon as ordinarily conducted in America promotes the drinking of alcoholic liquors not really as a beverage but as a stimulant, not as an accompaniment to meals but apart from them. To furnish a little food with the liquid is quite a different thing from furnishing a moderate amount of liquid with the ordinary regular food. A bar with a free lunch is neither a hotel nor a restaurant. The only real and radical remedy of the liquor traffic, in my judgment, would be to abolish the American saloon and use alcohol only either as a medicine, under the advice of a physician, or, in its lighter forms, as a beverage in connection with meals.

I shall venture to assume, if I do not hear from you to the contrary, that you have no objection to my printing your invitation to me and this letter in response, if I should deem it best to do so, and I have no objection to publication of the letter provided that it is published in its entirety.

Thanking you for the invitation, and the opportunity it has furnished me to give this frank expression of my views to you, and through you, if you choose, to your associates, believe me

Very sincerely yours,

LYMAN ABBOTT.

January 25, 1910.

Dr. Lyman Abbott:

Dear Sir—On my return from the South I find your letter of the 18th, in which you say that it will be impossible for you to accept our invitation to speak at our Convention in St. Louis next month, but you say you doubt whether you could be of any service to our Convention, even were you able to accept the invitation.

You say that you are glad that the men engaged in the liquor traffic are trying to bring about reform, and that you appreciate the difficulty of their work, and you would be glad to render them any service in your power, but that your ideas are so radical that you fear they would be of no value to us.

You say that you do not think that distilled liquors should be used except under the advice of a physician, and that where beer and light wines are used as a beverage it should be only in connection with meals.

You say that you believe that alcohol is very injurious if taken on an empty stomach, and you conclude, therefore, that these views would be fatal to the saloon as ordinarily conducted in America. There-

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fore you hold that the only real and radical remedy for the liquor traffic would be to abolish the American saloon, use alcohol only as a medicine, and use wines and beers in connection with meals.

This is very good as far as it goes, and I will not say that your conclusions are incorrect. I will say, however, that there are millions and millions of people in this country who do not seem to agree with you.

The people in this country consume 114,000,000 gallons of distilled spirits every year for beverage purposes. If we figure seventy drinks to a gallon, this amounts to 7,980,000,000 drinks of distilled spirits used by the people of the United States, and this does not include imported brandies, Scotch whiskies, etc., and it does not include the alcohol used in the arts and sciences.

What are you going to do with a people who consume this enormous amount of alcohol in a way you believe to be injurious, but which they seem to think is of advantage to them?

Would you prohibit them?

Would you say, "I am going to have a glass of wine, or a bottle of wine, with my dinner, but you men shall not have a drink of whisky at the time that you think it is of greatest advantage to you"?

The people of this country consume per capita one and thirty-hundredths gallons of distilled liquors and twenty-two gallons of fermented liquors a year. They seem to me to be about as prosperous, and about as healthy, and about as enterprising, and about as religious, and about as philanthropic as any people on earth.

Perhaps it would be better if they did not use any alcohol at all. But can we compel ninety million people, who drink the enormous amount of whisky, wine, and beer above referred to, to give up the habit by an edict of law?

Must we not depend upon example and instruction and evolution?

I have no objection to your printing my invitation and your response, provided you will also print the above response to your letter; and I am sure you will not hesitate to print the above response if you decide to print your letter to me, because I know that Dr. Lyman Abbott is not only in earnest in matters of reform, but I know that he is absolutely unafraid.

Very truly yours,

T. M. GILMORE,
President National Model License League.

Louisville, Kentucky.

February 8, 1910.

Mr. T. M. Gilmore, President:

Dear Sir—I regret that a pressure of special duties has prevented me from earlier answering your letter of January 25. The figures which you give indicate that the evil is far greater than I had supposed, and the necessity for reform more urgent. I think that all physicians are agreed that the use of alcohol, except in connection with meals or as a special medicine, is always injurious. Most physicians are agreed that distilled liquors should be used only medicinally, and as medicine, with great caution. All physicians are agreed that the excessive use of alcohol is a most prolific cause of disease, all sociologists that it is a prolific cause of poverty, and all penologists that it is a prolific cause of crime. If distilled liquors are used to the extent that your figures indicate, and I must assume their accuracy, that use would go far to account for the disease, the poverty, and the crime which are three of the great burdens which the Nation is carrying. You ask me what I would do, in view of this state of facts. I would use all my influence to persuade my fellow-citizens not to patronize or support the saloons; second, to educate both the children and the adults to a rational understanding of the perils involved in an excessive use of alcohol; third, I would leave to each locality the question what measures it would take for the regulation of the saloon, and I would give to every locality the power to prohibit it altogether. In my judgment, the moral and educational reform is more important because more fundamental than legislative reform; and no particular legislative reform can be prescribed alike for all localities, but each locality must be left free to adopt such methods as public opinion will support and enforce.

Yours respectfully,

LYMAN ABBOTT.

February 11, 1910.

Dr. Lyman Abbott:

Dear Mr. Abbott—Your very interesting letter of the 8th just received, and I

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have read same very carefully. Practically, I agree with all that you say in this letter.

I agree with physicians that the excessive use of alcohol is a prolific cause of disease; with sociologists, that it is a prolific cause of poverty; with penologists, that it is a prolific cause of crime; and I agree with you that mankind should be educated either to avoid the use of alcohol altogether or to use it in moderation.

I agree with you that "the moral and educational reform is more important because more fundamental than legislative reform;" and I agree with you that "each locality should be left free to adopt such method of reform as public opinion will support and enforce."

Very respectfully yours,

T. M. GILMORE,

President National Model License League.

Louisville, Kentucky.

TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE SCHOOLS

BY J. H. GARDINER

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH IN HARVARD UNIVERSITY

MR. W. D. Lewis's lively article on "College Domination of High Schools" will help to keep alive a discussion which, if based on knowledge of the facts, can do only good to both parties to it.[1] No college can hope to live in these days unless it draws the largest percentage of its students from the public high schools of the country; and a high school which does not send a reasonable, even though a small, number of its pupils on to college is failing to create the ambition for large intellectual experience. There should always be a healthy and stimulating difference of opinion as to the exact adjustment of the balance between the special interests of the school and of the college; but here, as elsewhere in human affairs, bitterness and prejudice will disappear when the two parties come to the discussion in the belief that there is no difference between them in fair-mindedness and the anxiety for the public good. Above all, no good can come of the discussion without an exact knowledge of the facts; and it is because I think that Mr. Lewis has been misinformed on one important part of the discussion, and therefore has unwittingly misled the readers of The Outlook, that I wish here to explain the requirements in English which are the basis for college entrance examinations through most of the country, to show how they are made, and what they are intended to accomplish.

The assertion that I particularly wish to challenge is that "nowhere else has the stiff formality of an examinable requirement been so fatal as in that most important of college subjects, the mother tongue. College teachers have written the courses, trained the teachers, set the examinations, and execrated the results." It is the fact for the most part that college teachers have trained the teachers, for college training is now generally required of teachers in high schools. It is the fact for the most part that college teachers set the examinations, but with the important exception that on each of the committees which make the papers for the College Entrance Examination Board there is always one school-teacher. It is often the fact that college teachers have execrated the results of much of the school teaching of English composition, but here they are at one with business men and the public generally. It is not the fact that college teachers have written the courses, except in so far as they have done so in cooperation with teachers from the schools. As to "the stiff formality of an examinable requirement," the phrase seems to me to have no relevance to any requirements in English that I know of, unless it

[1] A letter from Mr. Lewis, whose article in The Outlook for December 11 last has called out Professor Gardiner's reply, will be found in "Letters to The Outlook."—THE EDITORS.

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be to those of the New York Regents, and I know of these only somewhat vaguely.

Mr. Lewis is quite right in assuming that all requirements for admission to college should take into account the great mass of high school pupils who do not go to college; and this assumption is particularly true of English. I can see no reason why the course in English for a boy who is going into business when he is eighteen years old should differ from that for a boy who is going on to college. And I should not be writing this article if I did not believe that the course of study on which the examinations for college are now based is almost ideally well devised for the enlightenment and training of the boys and girls whom the colleges must miss. I will begin, therefore, by stating the facts about the way in which the requirements are set and the examinations made, and then go on to what will be of more general interest—the ideals which should lie behind a course in English in the high schools.

The facts as to the making of the college requirement in English are simple, and are widely known to teachers of English. Every three years a Conference is called together from the Associations of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in New England, in the Middle States and Maryland, in the North Central States, and in the South, to consider and revise, if need be, the requirements in English. The title of the Conference, "The National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English," explains its purpose. In this Conference the teachers of the secondary schools have played an essential part; at its last meeting out of sixteen regular delegates four were teachers in schools; and two others were present as delegates from the Association of Teachers of English in New England, though without votes. These teachers were constantly consulted in our deliberations. Moreover, this last Conference gave especial weight to the views and desires of the teachers in schools by adjourning for a year in order that the views of the schools as well as of the colleges might be ascertained on various important questions. When the Conference met again, a summary of the answers from teachers in both college and school was in the hands of the members. On two points there was a difference of opinion between the answers received from the schools and those from the colleges; in one of these cases there was a compromise, in the other the desires of the schools prevailed. On the important matter of the choice of the books for reading there was little difference of opinion, for in the last fifteen or twenty years about all the books which can be considered have been tried in the schools, and there was little left for the Conference to do but to register the accumulated experience of the teachers. There was no suggestion in the Conference that the college teachers assumed peculiar competence in this matter; my impression is that we all felt that here we should defer to the views of those who were using the books. It is therefore not the fact that the college "has published its list of books and insisted that the teachers fit pupils to pass examinations on these books and no others, regardless of the preference of the teachers and of the adaptability of the books to the maturity of the child."

In the examinations set on these requirements the case is much the same. In the first place, the College Entrance Examination Board, as I have said, makes the wise provision that on each of the committees of three which make out the papers in the various subjects there shall be one school-teacher; and these Board examinations are bound to be more generally accepted by the colleges each year. Of the practice of the different colleges in making out their own examinations I know accurately only that at Harvard. Here we have always been in constant communication with teachers in schools, both private and public. In the last two years, since I have had to do with the papers myself, I have talked over the examinations with many school-teachers; and what competence I have in the matter is due largely to the freedom and kindliness with which they have opened for me their wisdom and experience. And I believe that what is true of Harvard is true of all the colleges.

I do not wish, however, to seem to be merely apologizing for these requirements

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and examinations in English, for, as I have said, I believe that this scheme of study, which has been worked out by the active and cordial co-operation of the schools and colleges, is, under the present limits of time, very nearly an ideal scheme for all boys and girls between fourteen and eighteen years of age. I know, both from reading examination books and from talking to freshmen, that boys who are prepared under this plan come to college with better-trained minds and with more liking for books because of their training. Moreover, in talking with the teachers in the schools I get the impression that they are very well satisfied with the course that is laid out for them. Let us see, then, what sort of discipline of the mind and enlargement and cultivation of taste may be expected from such work as is contemplated by these requirements. They cover three kinds of work: practice in reading a considerable variety of literature, close study of a small amount of poetry and prose, and practice in English composition.

The first kind of study, described in the Uniform Requirements as "reading and practice," is expected to be carried on through a considerable part of the high school course. The books for this part of the requirement are drawn from a list of forty or fifty plays, stories, essays, and poems, from which each teacher chooses ten for his own class. The list includes five of the easier plays of Shakespeare, eleven stories (ranging in size and seriousness from "Robinson Crusoe" and Stevenson's "Treasure Island" to "Henry Esmond"), "The Pilgrim's Progress," Franklin's "Autobiography," Macaulay's essays on Clive and Warren Hastings, Thoreau's "Walden," Stevenson's "Travels with a Donkey," and such poetry as parts of the "Golden Treasury," "The Lady of the Lake," "The Ancient Mariner," "The Vision of Sir Launfal," "The Courtship of Miles Standish," some of the "Idylls of the King," and some of Browning's minor poems. Such a list does not constitute a course in English or American literature; for there is no time in the ordinary high school for such a course. Moreover, no one in the Conference supposed that teachers would confine themselves to such a list; in any decent high school far more than ten books will be read in the course of the four years. But some list is necessary if there are to be examinations; and a carefully chosen list is a guard against crankiness among isolated teachers and against cutting down the time given to English in the weaker schools. The books on this list were taken as samples of the best there is in English literature, and as material by means of which growing boys and girls may be led to see that there is something different in great works of literature from what is to be found in the passing book of the day. The recommendation of the Conference is that the pupil "should read the books carefully, but his attention should not be so fixed upon details that he fails to appreciate the main purpose and charm of what he reads." And the examinations which have been set on similar requirements in the past have kept this purpose scrupulously in mind. Here are questions from the papers set last June by the College Entrance Examination Board, Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, respectively: "Tell at some length what surprised you most in one of these novels, showing why you were surprised;" "What humorous characters are introduced into 'Henry V'? Describe them briefly;" "How Eppie came to Marner's cottage;" "Franklin's deliberate attempt to improve his own character." Such questions are just what a teacher with a love for books and the capacity for imparting his love to his pupils would be trying to make them discuss. Boys and girls of fifteen to eighteen ought to be getting some glimpse into the construction of stories and plays, so that they shall have deeper enjoyment in the future in their reading and in their play-going; they ought to be discussing the characters, and to be tracing out the sequence of conduct and effect as it is thrown into high relief by the great masters of literature; they ought to be coming to acquaintance with the great English poets. It is hard to see how this end can be better accomplished in the meager time at the disposal of the teacher of English than by setting the boys and girls to read such works as those on this list. The reading must be chiefly done out of school; and then, by lively and wisely directed discussion in school, the teacher

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brings the children to see for themselves how much there is of wisdom, of shrewd judgment of character, of beauty of phrase and imagery, in these works which have established themselves in the affection of the race. Especially the boys and girls who are not going on to college need to be helped to a discrimination between what is excellent and abiding and what is merely clever; they need to have their attention turned to the skill in workmanship and the insight that make lasting literature, so that, when they leave school, they may, if possible, have the habit of turning by preference to what is noble and inspiring. And this can be done, and is done, by teachers who are preparing boys for college on these requirements. Last year a couple of freshmen, by no means of the "literary" type, told me that in the summer after they left school they had been reading some of Browning's longer poems, because they had liked the shorter poems they had read in school. Those boys happened to have been prepared by a notable teacher; but the case is by no means uncommon. There are plenty of boys who are getting just this sort of inspiration, and there ought to be. When the teachers of English literature in the colleges join with the teachers of literature in the schools in an earnest effort to lay out the best possible course of reading, and to provide stimulating and suggestive examinations, the result may be expected to be good.

The second part of the course provided for in these Uniform Requirements consists of close study of a few specimens of poetry and prose, consisting of a play of Shakespeare, some of Milton's minor poems, a famous speech, and an essay. It is on this part of the requirement alone that the examinations ask questions on the meaning of words and allusions and searching questions as to structure. The retention of this part of the requirement is chiefly because of the overwhelming majority of the schools which favored it, as shown in the answers to the inquiry sent out by the Conference two years ago. This strong consensus of opinion has solid grounds; and again the value of this part of the requirement is greater for those boys and girls who do not go to college than for those who do. There are not many single things more worth getting from an education than the habit of reading Shakespeare. But Shakespeare's language is not our language; in some of the plays it is so compacted that close study is necessary to understand it; and for us, three hundred years after his time, many of the words are strange or strangely used. A person who has never been shown this fact may never realize how much of the beauty and depth of Shakespeare's thought he is missing. It is the same thing with the crowded allusions in much of English poetry, from Shakespeare to Tennyson; the English poets have made classical mythology part of the vocabulary of our language. The boy who said he would have liked Milton "except for those blamed gods and goddesses" may have been human, but if he had not been made to learn something about them he could not have followed Milton's thought except by a kind of a hop, skip, and jump.

In the study of the examples of prose the purpose is somewhat different; here it is a question of showing the boy what clean and muscular thought is by making him follow out a considerable piece of reasoning. There is much current execration of the blind brutality of authorities who force Burke's speech "On Conciliation with America" on innocent youth; but I know teachers who get their boys enthusiastic over the clarity and vigor of its reasoning. The boy who needs this particular kind of training most is the boy who does not go to college, for he will get elsewhere little direct training in thinking out a subject and marshaling facts into a clear and compelling proof.

The most valuable result of this part of the requirement, however, is the training that it gives in exactness and thoroughness of thought. Few people realize the capacity there is in many young men of twenty years to misread a simple line of prose or poetry. A wise old officer of Harvard College once said of the undergraduates, "The trouble with them is, they can't read print." The next most valuable thing to knowing facts is to know that you do not know them; and there is no better way to bring home to the average youth the boundaries between what he knows and what he thinks he

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knows than to hold him down to a real scrutiny of the text of one of Shakespeare's plays, or to make him give a coherent account of the thought in a considerable piece of prose. Schools cannot go very far with such study as this, and much of the freshman year at college must always be taken up with teaching the picked youths from the school to read in such a way as to grasp both the details and the general course of the thought. But a course in English in a high school which did not include this close study would deprive the boys who do not go to college of their best training in keen and power-making thought.

Finally, as to the study of English composition. The recommendation drawn up by the Conference last February is, I believe, an admirable statement of the best sort of training for the boy or girl who goes no further than the high school. It reads as follows: "The principles of English composition governing punctuation, the use of words, sentences, paragraphs, and the different kinds of whole composition, including letter-writing, should be thoroughly mastered; and practice in composition, oral and written, should extend throughout the secondary school period. Written exercises may well comprise narration, description, and easy exposition and argument based upon simple outlines. It is advisable that subjects for this work be taken from the student's personal experience, general knowledge, and studies other than English, as well as from his reading in literature." This simple statement needs no lengthy exposition; like the other parts of the requirement, it is the result of many years of cordial and earnest collaboration between teachers from the colleges and from the schools, and until a better one is proposed it may be left to defend itself.

It will be noticed that this recommendation about the work in English composition does not contain the word rhetoric. That is, on the whole, a wise omission, for there is always some danger that the rules and definitions of the books of rhetoric may be treated as if they were of independent and substantial value. In the high school examinations of the New York Board of Regents for 1907 (the latest that I have at hand), in a paper in "Advanced English Composition," there are the following questions:

> How may circumstantial description and impressional description be combined in a paragraph possessing unity? Illustrate by writing a paragraph describing a landscape.
>
> Define four of the following as applied to narration or description: suspense, acceleration of movement, sequence of time, suggestion, antecedent material.
>
> Mention two retarding forces frequently used in narration.

And in an examination on rhetoric the pupil is directed to name the figures of speech in three passages of poetry and to "explain the comparison in each case." What useful purpose is served by such study as these questions imply I cannot conceive. A boy or girl should be taught to write stories or descriptions, not set to learn the abstract and empty terms by means of which some rhetorician has desiccated and dissected the work of great writers. Any study of rhetoric which goes beyond the formulation of simple and practical suggestions for actual writing is to be suspected. The schools have little enough time allowed for the study of English, and it is a sheer waste of it to employ it on formal and barren analysis; and it is not the least virtue of the Uniform Requirements in English which I have been discussing that they make impossible such questions as those I have just quoted.

No one, however, and least of all the open-minded teachers in the schools, would hold that we have reached perfection in our requirements in English composition. The standard in this matter at Harvard is considered, I believe, fairly high, and we condition somewhat more than forty per cent of those who try our examination; but I should be ashamed to show some of the slovenly and inaccurate English which we let pass every year. No business man would keep a stenographer a day who was as sloppy and inaccurate in spelling and punctuation, and even in grammar, as two-thirds of these youths of seventeen and eighteen years of age who come up to us. There is no need to be pessimistic, for matters are slowly improving; but the English of graduates of the high schools will never be such as it ought to be until attention is paid to all the writing

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that their pupils do in school. A boy who is allowed to write slovenly and obscure English in his translations and in his exercises in history or physics will hardly catch up in the small time allowed to his teacher of English. We assume that good writing should be a habit; as a matter of fact, in many schools bad writing is the habit established by the four years in the high school, since the boy is allowed to be as slack and careless as he chooses to be in four-fifths of all the writing that he does. If any of the readers of this article who happen to be members of school committees or school boards will call for exercises written in high school classes in history or physics or botany or in translations, I think they may have unpleasant surprises. But until they or the superintendents and principals stir themselves, even the wisest statement of a requirement will do little to overcome the illiteracy of many of our high school graduates. This is rather an inconvenience than a serious evil for the colleges and their graduates, for most of the colleges maintain more or less strict prescriptions of correct writing for freshmen. It is a very serious matter for the great mass of high school graduates who do not go to college; they have a right to expect that they shall be equipped with a respectable command of their mother tongue.

This brief statement will, I hope, help to clear up the misunderstanding that evidently exists in some people's minds as to the relations between the school and the college. The relation between the two must be of mutual and friendly support if both are to do their best service to the country. Teachers generally, as we may be pardoned for thinking of ourselves, are tolerably disinterested in this service; and I cannot find that in the zeal to do good and to help the youth of the republic there is any difference between those in the colleges and those in the schools.

LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Professor Gardiner's article on "Teaching English in the Schools" [printed elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook] raises two questions: First, do the colleges in effect determine the English course in the high school? second, if they do, is this course the best possible both for pupils who will and for those who will not go to college? Proof that they do so determine the courses appears in the fact that the high school must prepare all its pupils to meet college entrance requirements or else provide separate classes for those who are not to go to college. The added expense prohibits separate classes in most cases. Moreover, this plan is impracticable, because very many pupils are uncertain about college entrance until late in the high school course. That the college entrance list furnishes the backbone of the reading course in nearly every public high school in the Northern and Western States is further proof of college dictation of the course. So far as New York State is concerned, I can personally testify that the demands of the colleges were a prime consideration of the Regents' committee that formulated the syllabus of 1905, and again of the one that prepared the new syllabus to be published next summer for the guidance of the New York State schools for the next five years.

Professor Gardiner's contention that secondary schools are represented in the National Conference on Uniform Requirements in English and on the board that prepares examination papers is of little importance, because they are always greatly in the minority, four out of sixteen on the former and one out of three on the latter. Moreover, every one of these secondary teachers on both boards is from a private preparatory school. Evidently, therefore, these men can hardly be called representatives of the public secondary school.

It is clear, then, that the colleges do in effect determine the English course in the high schools. I believe that this course has not been the best possible because the college "has insisted that the teachers fit the pupils to pass examinations on [its list of] books and no others, regardless of the preference of the teachers and of the adaptability of the books to the maturity of the child." The most important reason for the existence of a prescribed list of books is the alleged necessity of a uniform basis for examination. Any such list, however, fails to provide for varying taste and ability in the teacher and for divergence in social conditions, age, maturity, and capacity of children. Professor Gardiner is mistaken, so far as New York State is concerned, when he assumes that the teachers can handle appreciably more than the prescribed texts. Preparation on the content of the required books for the minute examination that may at any time come from college or Regents, together

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with training in composition, takes up all the available time.

The fact that an examination is ahead places a wrong motive before both teacher and pupil, and tends to rob the consideration of a classic of its best cultural value. It is studied as a task, not comprehended as a microcosm of the human life all round the child. Little sections are reproduced in themes, and the details of all the books in the course are reviewed *ad nauseam*, so that pupils can write on any assigned topic from any book of the four years, such as the following, taken from recent College Entrance Board examinations: "Explain the part played in 'Ivanhoe' by the Black Sluggard, Isaac of York, or Friar Tuck." "Show that Godfrey Cass was a worshiper of 'blessed chance.'" "Show from the 'Sir Roger de Coverley Papers' that the Spectator spoke truly when he said, 'The city is the great field of game for sportsmen of my species.'" These examples are all from the books for "reading and practice," on which no minute questions are supposed to be asked. It is, of course, to be remembered that all the books of the course are to be held in solution to the end of the four years' course, so that the examination re-agent will produce the right precipitate.

Equally disastrous is the influence of the prescribed list on the composition of the pupils. After grinding up the sinews of literature for the examination hash, pupils are trained to cook it in dainty croquettes of various sizes for professorial consumption. For example, for entrance to Harvard in 1909 they must have been prepared to answer the following: "(*a*) Give the names of the periodicals in which Johnson wrote. (*b*) What was the nature of his contributions?" (Fifteen minutes.) "(*a*) From what source did Tennyson draw the materials for his 'Idylls of the King'? (*b*) Should you think of Tennyson as belonging to a classical or a romantic school? (*c*) Briefly state your reasons for your opinions." (Fifteen minutes.) "(*a*) What English writers influenced Washington Irving? (*b*) In what way? (*c*) Describe one of his principal works."

I am sure that Professor Gardiner, as a teacher of composition, will agree with me that we always get a much better product, both in form and content, when we permit the pupil to write upon a subject in which he is vitally interested. Why not let him write on such subjects exclusively in the college entrance examinations?

The "wise old officer of Harvard" who said of the undergraduates, "The trouble with them is they can't read print," was right. Would it not tend to correct this fault if the college in its examinations set as a test of the teaching in the schools the requirement that the pupils be able to read any print that a freshman ought to be able to read, rather than the requirement that they prepare answers to a lot of minute questions about literary men, epochs, and masterpieces that can be recorded on mental Edison records to fit any college examination phonograph?

The course has not been the best possible, because it has produced dislike rather than love for literature. For six years I asked all senior pupils in a high school of seventeen hundred pupils to write *unsigned* papers for me commenting on the English course. My first discovery was an almost universal aversion to "Ivanhoe." It had been taught by the method still in vogue, and still necessary to insure correct answers to such questions as the one quoted above, four years after the book is studied. A change of method produced a complete reversal of judgment about "Ivanhoe" from later classes.

Professor Gardiner's example of the two boys who read Browning might be taken as an illustration of what a genius as teacher could do in spite of present requirements. It proves nothing. I wonder that this case did not suggest to him an experiment that would produce valuable evidence. Let him secure from every Harvard freshman answers to a *questionnaire* which would show how many books on the college entrance list or books by the same authors he had read since studying these authors in school, and what percentage these books are of his total reading. This would afford some measure of the value of the present plan for Harvard students.

Professor Gardiner's statement that over forty per cent of Harvard freshmen are conditioned in English is evidence that conditions need improvement. May not the trouble be due to the fact that the colleges do not ask that the high schools turn over to them boys and girls who can speak English, who can write English, who can understand English of ordinary difficulty, and who have read as widely as can be expected of the eighteen-year-old boy or girl in the English classics? A boy may qualify in all these particulars and yet absolutely fail in the entrance examinations. The following case is typical: A young man went to Yale who was equipped in these four particulars. The examiners conditioned him because, although he was so equipped, he was not provided with the particular brand, consisting of two ounces of this, a pennyworth of that, shaken together in two ounces of the other. His college work, however, was such that they put him on the honor roll. If he had been simply crammed with the few books that they required, and had been trained to rattle off the usual kind of college entrance themes, he might have passed the examination even though he had never read a book outside the list prescribed.

It is easy for a mediocre teacher to drill the facts of a book into a pupil's memory. It requires power and skill to arouse a discriminating taste for literature. The present college entrance requirements have developed thousands of drill-masters, but have given no stimulus nor encouragement to the inspirer. They have kept teachers to the

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point of view of their senior year in college, when they had, or pretended to have, an interest in distinctions between romantic and classical poetry, "Sources of the 'Idylls,'" literary influences, and similar high-browed cloistered vanities entirely beyond the comprehension of high school pupils.

There are four essentials common to college, high school, and world: ability to speak, to read, to write, and appreciative acquaintance with the world's great literature. In its entrance requirements the college has ample opportunity constantly to raise the standard in all these fundamentals without restricting teachers to a particular method of instruction in a prescribed list of books. W. D. LEWIS.

North High School, Syracuse, New York.

DEPARTMENT STORES AND THE PRESS IN PHILADELPHIA—TWO VIEWS

It has become the habit of a large class of hysterical periodicals—mostly published in that center of "civic righteousness," New York—to vilify all things pertaining to Philadelphia. The Outlook, a conspicuous member of the class, promulgates one of the latest forms of calumny. One of its editors made a cursory survey of the strike situation. After arguing that the preponderance of right was with the transit company, that the strike would fail, and that the company would win the fight, he brings in his gratuitous slander upon the newspapers of Philadelphia, with a statement of "the domination of the department stores over almost the entire press of the city, with the effect of concealing and misrepresenting public opinion," etc.

Just what this Outlook editor means is not clear, except to repeat the expression of muck-rakers and sensation-mongers who join this calumny with the insulting phrase that Philadelphia and its people are contented in corruption.

In the present controversy seven of the eight English newspapers urgently and persistently demanded that the issues be submitted to arbitration several days before any mercantile interests had taken up the question, and when, in fact, the feeling of the great mercantile interests seemed opposed to this step. Every newspaper has published every item of news that could be gathered by a large corps of trained reporters, regardless of the desires or preferences of any interest in the city. The newspaper reports of the strike, covering three or four pages each day for nearly two weeks, have made almost a new epoch in American journalism. . . .

As far as the department stores are concerned, their efforts toward arbitration came after the newspaper demands. Their only conceivable interest in any case is to promote peace, order, and tranquillity, the reign of law, the appeal to reason, and the promotion of the healthy growth and well-being of the community. A prosperous and contented city is their dependence, and it is difficult to imagine where their interests can diverge from the duty of loyal and patriotic journalism. . . .

—*Philadelphia Public Ledger, March 5, 1910.*

The statement of your special correspondent is in the main correct. Possibly all papers do not offend in an equal degree; but there is proof positive that pressure was brought to bear on the papers at the time of the agitation of the strip ticket controversy a year ago, and the advertising of one large firm was withdrawn from a prominent paper because it would not "let up" in its advocacy for the restoration of the strip ticket. It is a notorious fact that other papers did let up rather than lose the patronage of the department stores. It is a matter of common belief, though not susceptible of positive proof, that the "Transit Talks" published as an advertisement for some time past were gotten up for the express purpose of buying off the free expression of opinion of the papers. It is also a matter of common belief that at the present time strong pressure is being brought upon the press to suppress much of the news that may be damaging to the traction company or to the city authorities. And I can say from my own observations of events that passed under my own eyes in a much-disturbed section of the city that the true facts were not reported.

A PHILADELPHIA BUSINESS MAN.

STATE RESPONSIBILITY FOR LOSS BY RIOTS

After the destruction of sixteen buildings in the riots at Springfield, Ohio, in 1904 and 1906, the writer called attention to a fact not generally known, that our fire insurance companies have a clause relieving them from responsibility in case of riot, rebellion, insurrection, or invasion. Now the interpretation of the laws of Ohio is such as to make recovery of loss from town, county, or State so doubtful that no suits are to be brought in the Springfield cases. Efforts are confined to placing the matter before Governor Harmon, with a view of suggesting to the Legislature a revision of the law, together with payment of the Springfield losses by the State.

If such conditions exist in Ohio, the land of Presidents, they must needs exist in other States. And in such States it necessarily follows that all property stands exposed to the caprice of mob and riot. For permissive sentiment rules that there shall be no responsible authority from which redress may be obtained for damages inflicted by irresponsible bands of incendiaries. There is naught for the loser but to submit to his fate; there is naught for those who escape the fury but to thank their stars and trust that the rabble will continue to spare their belongings in future attempts to restore the social equilibrium.

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It is easy to recognize that such conditions will exert an unfavorable influence upon the value of mortgages as soon as the existence of the defective laws and their bearing are better understood, and that this risk will be considered in the granting of loans.

Supposing a continuance of these conditions, inhabitants of such States would have to jog along as apologetically as possible, but the conclusion to be drawn is plain. The hastening wayfarer may discern that the settler, the merchant, the company, and the investor will hesitate to enter such States. Nor is that all. Citizens will hie to States where better safeguards are provided for property, as fast as realizing can be accomplished.

Though reasonable regard for the rights of property is commonly held to be a primary basis of order in civilized communities, conditions as disclosed in Ohio are manifestly an invitation to redressing of grievances by mob and torch.

Most surely need would seem to be indicated of a general law, common to all the States, enabling suits to be brought against town, county, or State for a full—not a partial—recovery of loss inflicted by mob.

And this is an urgent National question for consideration by Congress, or perhaps by the House of Governors.

CLARKE DOOLEY.

Brooklyn, New York.

THE INDIGNATION OF JESUS

I am heartily in sympathy with Dr. Devine's thought and aim in his interesting article upon "Society and the Criminal" in your issue of February 5. May I therefore the more earnestly ask the consideration of your readers for an important issue that he raises in quoting, as "an instance of righteous anger and the prompt administration of a just and appropriate remedy," the familiar story of Jesus driving out the money-changers from the Temple (Matt. xxi. 12, etc.; Luke xix. 45, etc.; John ii. 15, etc.). As a matter of fact, this famous passage has become the arsenal from which to draw excuses for every one who wishes to justify his own "righteous anger." It is the nature of anger always to think itself just. Who ever, in the time of his wrath, stops to think that his cause may not be just? There obviously lurks a subtle peril in the constant citation of this incident from Jesus' story as a case of ideal conduct.

See where this carries us. By the force of Jesus' authority in this instance the greatest teachings of the Sermon on the Mount have been practically neutralized, and Jesus' own conduct has been turned into an effectual precedent in favor of war—of "just war," of course, but what war is not "just" in the eyes of those who are waging it? Behind Jesus' example also stands the ingenious apologist for the lyncher, who, failing to get justice in the usual way, is urged by his righteous wrath to take justice into his own hands. John Brown doubtless quoted Jesus for all the anarchical incidents in his career.

Ask now carefully whether the "remedy" applied in the story was "just and appropriate." We have no evidence that a single money-changer was converted to a new mind. We suspect that they were all in their places the next week. Put yourself in their place. As long as bloody sacrifices were the rule in the Temple, what harm was there in helping to supply worshipers from Galilee and Egypt with the necessary offerings? Why was not this work as useful in the confines of the Temple as the (to us) offensive work of the priests at the altars?

But, granting what we do not know, that the traders were creating a veritable scandal, what right had the noblest individual to take upon himself to be accuser, judge, and executioner, all in one? All our sense of modern justice revolts against this assumption.

Fortunately, the New Testament gives us a higher and more effective rule of conduct. It is in the use of the love or friendliness which, like God's sunshine, falls "on the evil and on the good," "which suffereth long and is kind," and "never faileth." In short, let us appeal to that ideal "spirit of Christ" which is more than the specific actions of any single character in history, and ask what it would bid us do to the money-changers and their like. It would first touch us with sympathy, and remind us that no one had ever shown these men wherein they were doing wrong. It would require us to exhaust the remedies that reside in personal and private remonstrance and persuasion before we took up the weapon of the law. It would bid us as last resort to call upon the officers of the Temple in case the men were breaking the laws of the place, and it would thus save us from the terrible risk of using physical violence in the heat of our wrath. Is not this what our humanest judgment tells us?

I am aware that your excellent contributor has simply followed a time-honored tradition in his use of the story of Jesus and the money-changers. I urge that the time has come to set aside this tradition. We no longer make excuses for the story of God "hardening Pharaoh's heart," or for the divine command to slaughter the Amalekites. We do not care to cite the story of Jesus' cursing of the fig tree or of his destruction of the Gadarenes' swine. We have the easy option of discrediting such stories as unworthy of the character of Jesus. So with this scene in the Temple. We do not need to believe it. But, anyway, we are concerned with something far more precious than the details of a historic incident. We are concerned with that which we all believe mightily concerned Jesus, namely, justice and mercy. The value of Dr. Devine's contribution is that he sets ideals in the treatment of ill-doers which are still far in advance of the thought of Christendom.

CHARLES F. DOLE.

Jamaica Plain, Massachusetts.

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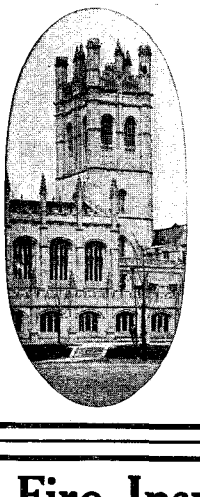

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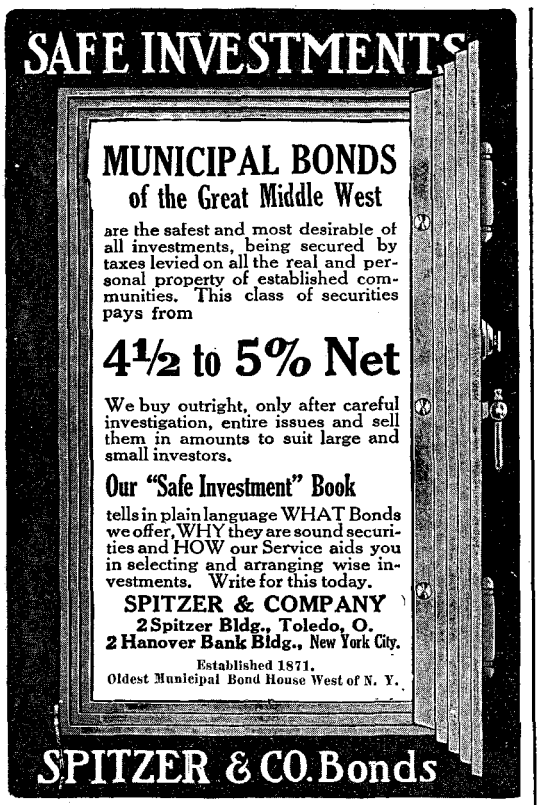
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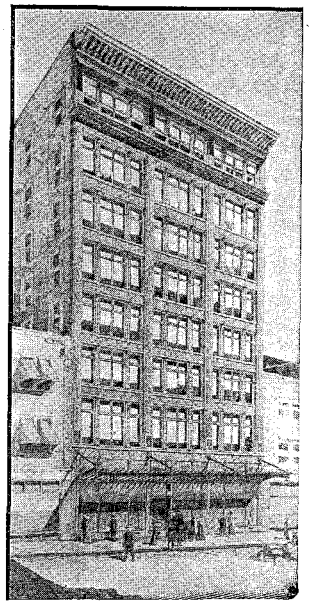

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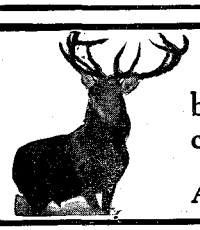

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